

# THE LONDON MAGAZINE.

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VOL. I.

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# LONDON MAGAZINE

FEBRUARY 1830.

STREET 10

•• Living Authors, No. II., will appear in our next Number.

We shall also give in our March Publication, under the *Political* head, a pretty extensive Review of the labours and characters of the *Leading Spirits* in the cause of Radical Reform, as it is called; and endeavour to point out the natural effects of their influence on the public mind and condition, supposing it ever (which heaven avert!) to acquire predominance in the country.

A notice of a singular Drama, in which *Space, Time, the Mediterranean Sea, the Earth, Ants, Sharks, Kings, Generals, and People*, perform the prominent parts, will certainly be given in our next.

Also, an *Inquiry into the Comparative Refinement of the two Ages of Elizabeth and Charles II.*—as an answer to the assertions of French Critics.

Some Papers, to which insertion has already been promised, will appear without further delay.

We have to thank our brethren Editors of *Blackwood* for a *civil* notice in their last Number—just received. This is far more agreeable (to both parties we presume) than a *civil war*. Not wishing that they should outdo us in courtesy, we make it a point to return their card, and beg to acquaint them, that we shall not willingly allow them to outdo us in any thing else. If we have (as they say) imitated their *manner*, have they not, in return, taken some hints from us as to *manners*? May the interchange continue to be profitable to both!

THE  
**London Magazine.**

Nº II.

FEBRUARY, 1820.

VOL. I.

MISCELLANEOUS ARTICLES.

POETRY AND PROSE, BY A MEMBER OF PARLIAMENT  
AND FREE MASON, &c. &c. &c.\*

THIS is a very extraordinary production, and it has excited the greatest interest in all who have seen it. But these are only the chosen few; for the work, like some other illustrious compositions of the present day, has stolen upon us mysteriously, without the protection of a publisher's name. We understand it is distributed *gratis*, under blank covers, amongst the hard readers of the higher orders. Certain gentlemen in black coats, and ladies in blue stockings, state to us, that copies have been dropped down the areas of their houses of an evening: others have received theirs tied up in small baskets, with the word "game" written outside. The volume has been sent to us, by a ticket-porter, very handsomely bound; and our high sense of the honour will be seen by the present article.

The style and manner of this work will be readily understood, when we characterize them by that little pithy monosyllable *free*. The subjects are free, the language is free, and the principles are extremely free. The unknown writer, in fact, is a friend to freedom of all sorts:—freedom of the press, freedom of the purse, freedom of wives, freedom from taxes, and freedom from religion. Here we may observe that the free

style of composition has lately been very much adopted by the patriotic authors who assert the principles of public freedom; and certainly to be loose is to be free, in one sense:—but, to say the truth, this same spicy style is not less in favour with those booksellers who are most conspicuously attached to religion and the ministry, and thus we find intimacy and union existing, where we might have expected to see hatred and hostility. It really is delightful, in these times of discord and disturbance, to observe, in a snug and sheltered corner, the leopard lying down with the kid, the dove nestling under the vulture's wing—that is to say, dropping the metaphor, Don Juan reposing on the Quarterly Review, and Beppo wrapped up, to keep his latent heat from escaping, in a spoiled sheet of Mr. Canning's speech against a licentious and profane press!

The volume by the member of Parliament and Free Mason, contains, as the title imports, both poetry and prose, the one playing into the hands of the other, as is the fashion now-a-days. There is an epistle to Lord Byron in it, which we shall afterwards particularly notice: in the mean time we wish to state, that we have perused, with much satisfaction, the

touching address to the author's three consorts, all at present alive, and the very fine elegy on two discarded mistresses, and one deceased wife. Perhaps the most poetical thing in the book is an anacreontic, suggested by a convivial meeting of choice spirits, where skulls served for drinking glasses, and he who refused a radical toast was compelled to use a common tumbler. We have been much struck, too, by an essay on the propriety of Sabbath breaking, and the policy of fixing two Sundays in each week for the benefit of skittle players, and the relief of apprentices. Murder, a song, and Bigamy, an epigram, are very clever and pleasing productions. A poem on the lottery, in blank verse, contains some powerful sketches: amongst others, that of the starving wife of an artisan ruined by the lottery, who addresses Mr. Vansittart, and demands whether, now that the two-penny seductions of the poor are to be suppressed, the great state seduction, which gives birth to so much lying, fraud, and misery, can, with any consistency, be continued by ministers who profess an ardent and sincere zeal for religion, and a heartfelt regard for the welfare of the lower classes? This piece is quite in a different vein from the others, and might be supposed to have been written by Mr. Wordsworth, did that gentleman ever think it right to strike at those causes of popular depravity and wretchedness, which are connected with the selfishness or neglect of men in power. The member of Parliament describes himself as sitting for a rotten borough, and he seems to think there is some analogy between this circumstance and his taste for decayed cheese, of which he says

"The new is insipid—the sound I detest—  
But the bit that's corrupted I eat with a  
zest." p. 63.

This sentiment we should think, however, must hurt him with his brother reformers. Our author has been a great traveller—particularly since the peace, to Paris and back again. Of course he is very rich in remarks on the French ladies, of whom he observes, with his usual acumen, that they have fewer prejudices, and wear more petticoats than Englishwomen! He fancifully, but prettily,

accounts for this phenomenon, in the following stanza:

"While Eve knew only what was good,  
On clothes she laid no stress:  
But when the *wrong* she understood,  
She deemed it right to dress." p. 103.

Our author is always careful to wind-up with a moral:—without this he would deem himself deficient in the better part; and the practical application of the piece we have just quoted from, is given in its concluding verse:

"Dear English ladies think no harm  
To imitate the French;  
Add to your clothing something warm,  
From your reserve retrench!" p. 104.

The chef-d'œuvre of the book, however, is clearly the epistle to Lord Byron. The poet exercises the right of friendship to remonstrate with his Lordship on his long absence from England:—he asks, with great propriety, as well as with the most friendly intention in the world, whether disgust can have so stifled in his Lordship's breast the recollection of facts, as to induce him to believe—

"That fewer female frailties walk Hyde-  
Park,  
Than, from the Bridge of Sighs, trip tow'ards  
Saint Mark?" p. 27.

He apostrophises the illustrious Peer in a way quite new, and with much splendour of language:

"Oh thou, whatever title suit thine ear,  
Harold, Giaour, Juan, Beppo, Gondolier!  
Whether, like Howard, or like Captain  
Cook,  
Thou roam'st afar, by mountain, sea, and  
brook!  
Striking thy harp in Germany and Greece,  
And stealing, Jason like, the golden fleece,  
Tell us, oh tell us!"— p. 29.

what we hope his Lordship will never allow himself to be persuaded to tell, in the face of an excellent maxim, passed into an adage, against all such *post facto* disclosures. The author entreats of the noble wanderer to satisfy the curiosity of his anxious friends:

Write then to Murray where your Lordship's  
hid;  
In a Casino or a Pyramid?  
Or if Siloa's brook delight thee more,  
Or Nova Zembla's rocks, or Labradore?  
Perchance, possess'd with bold amphibious  
whim,  
Even now across the Hellespont you swim.

Where Oyster-men, who're Mussulmen,  
thus see  
A hero and LEANDER meet in thee!"

p. 30.

After some ridicule of the expedition to the north pole, a quiz on his uncle's second wife, an attack on Coleridge's poetry, and a compliment to Rogers,—the Member of Parliament and Free Mason proceeds, in a very dashing style of satire, to run down the Duke of Wellington and the Church of England; to disapprove of the national debt, and contrast the Coliseum with the Bank! He makes us ashamed of our temperate zone, by putting it in comparison with the torrid; and causes us to blush for our country, by reminding us, that, instead of carnivals, it has only contested elections! He asks whether a stock-jobber or a wild Arab be the most respectable character; and which can ride best? He is very severe on our hackney-coach fares, but compliments the French fiacres. He questions Englishmen, with a sneer, what they won at Waterloo?—and, with consummate severity, answers for them,—“*the battle!*” He demands, in a lofty tone, which puts us in mind of Mr. Hobhouse's luckiest tirades, who, that could leave it, would continue to live in a land—

Where folks are sent to prison who can't  
pay,  
And husbands frown whose ladies go astray!

p. 32.

Of course the poem does not finish without presenting a niche for Napoleon, whom he styles—

“That boast, that marvel, and that show,  
The god-like victim of Sir Hudson Lowe!”

Wishing [to enumerate the whole of this illustrious person's titles of honour, he afterwards calls him—

“The Patient of the Surgeon O'Meara,  
Who wore the Iron Crown, and Pope's  
Tiara:”

of which last historical fact we confess we were before ignorant. The most bigotted Englishman must allow, that there is something very imposing in the following couplet, enumerating two of our late enemy's most brilliant achievements:

“He, when defeated, offered England  
peace;  
And *came when caught!* just LIKE  
THEMISTOCLES!”

“This is true grandeur,” exclaims the Member of Parliament and Free Mason: “this beats Cheops:”—

“Let Britain boast of Alfred as her own,  
Gallia transcends—she *had* Napoleon!”

p. 33.

After some very pathetic lines on the reverses of this prince, and asking whether his having professed all the religions of the known world, ought not, in common justice, to have exempted him from sharing the punishment (imprisonment) inflicted on Mr. Carlile, who professes none,—he very cleverly makes use of the misfortune of the imperial captive, to give point to his appeal to Lord Byron on the impropriety of his protracted absence:

“Ask of your heart—’twill say his fate is  
such,  
For travelling,—not wisely—but too much!”

p. 34.

He implores him then to abandon the Houris and Mascharettas, and begs that he will no longer—

“From Circe's cup inhale the soporific,  
And slight a Muse whom nature made  
prolific.

The Reading Public all exclaim, ‘come back!  
Nor, like the Bucentaur, prolong a track,  
Which, though it shine upon the watery  
waste,

Tells but of distance and of things displac'd!  
Regard the wave, which, though it float in  
foam,

When the tide rises seeks its cavern'd home,  
Where the lone Mermaid, like a fish below,  
Rests on a billowy couch a breast of snow;  
A breast of snow, which tapers off to fin,  
As scales enclose the waist instead of skin!”

p. 35.

If the above be not fine poetry—we are much mistaken, that's all—but we do not think this very likely.

The conclusion of the poem is tuned into a strain at once lofty and deep: it rises and falls, and sinks and soars, and shoots forward, and twines round, in a very astonishing manner. In one line we find Lord Byron compared to Moses breaking the tablets of the law; in another, to Archimedes, who knocked people on the head from great distances; in a third, to the sybil, who demanded such high prices for her manuscripts: he is also said to be very like Mahomet's coffin, which hung between high and low; and still more like a mirage, a monsoon, Beaumont and Fletcher, the rock of Gibraltar, galvanism, a trade wind,

and Jeremy Taylor's prose! The epistle finishes by expressing a fervent wish that the noble poet

"May ne'er be led to do, however moved,  
What Cato did, and Addison approved."

p. 45.

To which we must all say, from our hearts, Amen.

Perhaps we ought to apologise to our readers for having, for so long a time, stuck close to the book before us,—which is not at all the modern fashion of reviewing; nor do we believe it to be our besetting fault in general. We can usually keep quite as wide of the mark as our neighbours; and, as some atonement for the past, we mean, during the little that remains of this article, to get as far as possible from the Member of Parliament and Free Mason. He goes into a prose criticism of Lord Byron's poetry, and an examination of his character and conduct, which do not appear to us to be, by any means, worthy of the excellence of the verses we have quoted:—we shall, therefore, here take our respectful leave of him, and say a few words on some of these matters for ourselves. Let the reader, then, increase his attention accordingly!

Much as we are struck by the power and vital energy of Lord Byron's poetry, we cannot think that the admiration which his works have excited, however justly due to them in many respects, is a particularly good proof of the profundity of the public mind,—and we think it still less a symptom of very chaste taste, or a correct style of thinking on such subjects. Lord Byron's poetry is neither that of imagination, nor of intellect, in the first degree;—but chiefly of sensibility, in its most constitutional sense. It springs from irritated, or otherwise excited feeling, and appeals to corresponding temperaments and dispositions. For this reason, its popularity certainly intimates that the public civilization is in a very advanced state, it being then that such temperaments and dispositions abound, and that a general craving for strongly seasoned provocatives exists. Curry and cayenne are not, we believe, the greatest favourites with the healthiest stomachs:—a lady of fashion, whose appetite is slightly quickened by her morning's drive,

finds them excellent and needful stimulants of her digestive organs; but a fox-hunter, or a sportsman after a day of grouse-shooting, wants nothing stronger than horse-radish, or good Durham mustard, to assist the decomposition of a pound of sirloin. We apprehend the fact to be, that, when the general mass of a nation become readers and admirers of poetry, the most piquant compositions will necessarily be the most popular:—the scientific naturalist finds ample occupation for his reflection and knowledge, in examining the qualities of the commonest creatures of his country, but the holiday seekers of sights cannot wonder at any thing short of a hyena or a rhinoceros. We consider both Rousseau and Lord Byron, in their literary characters (which cannot be separated from their personal ones), as extraordinary, nay monstrous productions of a social system, strongly fermenting under the influence of over-wrought civilization, and teeming with artificial habits of every kind. The solitary of the Lake of Bienne could only have been nursed and pampered to such exquisite perfection of capricious melancholy, in the laps of the women of Paris; and the crowded and suffocating routs of London have evidently given to Childe Harold his taste for gloomy reverie, and the sad sternness of his contemplative turn. Our countryman, we think, furnishes the most complete and eminently gifted specimen of this highly charged and artificially quickened character, which has ever been witnessed. He far surpasses Rousseau in this respect; for the native of Geneva in a great measure conformed the daily routine of his life to the vein and bias of his literary productions; but, with Lord Byron, the two are very much contrasted, and it is only in the jaded recollection of pleasure, and the recoil of overstretched sensation, that his mind presents to itself visions of sorrow, and turns, as for relief, to the pretence of misanthropy.

What we have said of this great writer, and most extraordinary and interesting man, will not be understood as we intend it, if it shall be construed to intimate that we are inclined to deny him the possession of eminent genius, in the most proper sense of the word. We certainly do

not think that his compositions are distinguished by those qualities that constitute the highest degree, or even kind of literary worth; but we do not know that this circumstance has any other cause than the intensity of his sympathies and sensations, destroying the purity of the ideal faculty in his mind, and mastering all the others to their own service. Their combined force, however, has enabled him to ride on the whirlwind of fashionable caprice, and direct the storm of popular passion. In an age when energy of action, and originality and independence of disposition are almost extinct, his works have given a character of elevation and magnificence to the mental restlessness that has succeeded to decision of purpose and strength of will:—he has thrown a solemn shade of reverie amidst the brilliance of the lighted drawing-room, and conveyed romantic forms and associations into the boudoirs of Grosvenor-square. At the same time, those who think with Milton, that “he who would not be frustrated of his hope to write well, ought himself to be a true poem—that is, a composition and pattern of the best and most honourable things; not presuming to sing the praises of heroic men, or famous cities, unless he has in himself the experience and practice of all that is praiseworthy;”—persons, we say, who consider this maxim as correct, will regret that Lord Byron’s choice of subjects indicates with more certainty than mere criticism can pretend to, that his poetical genius, although great, is not of the *first* magnitude; and that his vast popularity implies qualities in the public feeling and disposition, which it would be a hurtful mistake to consider as altogether proving the extreme purity and intellectual truth of the nation’s taste in poetry. It has been said to be “the prerogative of every great poet to create the taste by which he is to be enjoyed;” but we apprehend Lord Byron’s compositions have not had this trouble. While they agitate and excite the feelings, they also agreeably address themselves to the indolence which civilization engenders, by supplying strong stimuli, without calling for much exertion of thought. Their chief beauty lies in the intense and vehement feeling they exhibit for the

picturesque in action, effect, and character. Their style allies itself immediately with the state of the author’s mind, and to this circumstance we are inclined principally to attribute the wonderful power they exercise over all classes of readers in England. They present themselves, not as productions of art, to be judged of by its rules, but as unveiled exhibitions of the excesses, toils, sufferings, and struggles of a soul endowed with no common energies. We see Hercules tearing the envenomed shirt from his frame, yet standing proudly on the pile which his own hands had kindled. The interest excited by this spectacle cannot be referred to a fine taste for poetry: it no doubt argues the existence of a poetical disposition, but it must not be confounded with a just perception of what are the highest elements of poetical beauty.

The great value of the influence of Lord Byron’s poetry on the public mind, is to be found in the sympathy which it is well calculated to excite with the honours of ancient and famous places, and of illustrious names. This is a fine feeling to instil into the bosoms of a people; and it is also a needful corrective to the tendency of many of our modern habits. What has he left unsaid, that enthusiasm the most fervent could suggest, in behalf of Dante, of Ariosto, and of him whose tomb is in Arqua! He has passed before our eyes, as with the wand of an enchanter, the long succession of Italian honours—literary, military, ancient, modern, in science, art, and scenery. It may be asked, when has one great people furnished so unequivocal, so glowing a testimony to the glory of another?

“Italia, too, Italia! looking on thee,  
Full flashes on the soul the light of ages,  
Since the fierce Carthaginian almost won thee,

To the last halo of the chiefs and sages  
Who glorify thy consecrated pages.”

Thus, in a burst of passion, he hailed Italy, when she opened on his sight from where he stood on the snowy summits of the Alps: and he has passed through her cities, her woods, her plains, her mountains, her villages, amongst her monuments, her statues, her pictures, her people,—as one submitted to an irresistible power—“wrapt, inspired” by the influence of the place, and breathing an intoxi-

cating air, formed of the exhalations of her fame! The passages that celebrate Greece in his former productions, are marked by a calmer feeling, and, perhaps, as poetry, we may deem them finer than some that relate to Italy; but the earnestness of the poet's opinions and character is most apparent in the latter.

On the other hand, while Lord Byron strikes his harp as the minstrel of Italian glory, he imitates the wail of Cassandra in regard to England; and the gloom of his predictions is rendered more awful by the vivid flashes of his indignation. All this is very well! While England can boast of a Wellington to gain such battles as that of Waterloo, and of a Byron to decry them in such poetry as that of Childe Harold, there is reason to hope that she is yet a good way from her fall. It is worthy of the country's dignity, that no English critic, of any note, has endeavoured to confound the sentiments of the partizan with the talents of the poet; that no one has endeavoured to raise a public

outcry against the latter, because, in their exercise, they are often ungrateful towards the country best able to appreciate their merits, and which chiefly maintains their high reputation. We are proud of Lord Byron as a poet: as a politician, people of sense see where he is wrong as well as where he is right. What we would be inclined to resent as calumnies, in an author of a duller temperament, who might come hobbling after the poet's verses to repeat, in small prose, sentiments that must bear on their external front the mark of fanaticism to be otherwise than hateful,—we pass in the eccentric man of genius, as deviations owing to the energy of his natural impulses. But, when there is danger that some of the pernicious doctrines of this our froward favourite might have a corrupting influence on public opinion, it has been known how to inflict on them the correction they merited; and Lord Byron has received equally clear and convincing proofs of *how much* he can do with the people of England,—and *how little*!

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#### THE SPIRIT OF FRENCH CRITICISM, AND VOLTAIRE'S NOTICES OF SHAKSPEARE.

THE great deficiency in a Frenchman's\* mind, is of *imagination*. In the higher sense of the faculty, he can scarcely be said to possess it at all;—yet a contemporary French critic says, “all the world knows that our nation is distinguished at least by *imagination* :” and then he wonders why his countrymen should be reduced to take their novels from *les Anglais*. He is inclined, however, to trace this circumstance to the present earnest state of political thinking in France; meaning, of course, that the English have leisure to produce good novels, because they trouble their heads very little about politics!

It would be difficult, or rather impossible, to convince a Frenchman of the fact; but fact it is, that an almost total want of imagination is the circumstance which principally gives the characterising national mark to

what may be properly called French poetry, science, art, and politics. In their social manners it is the same, and their treatment of their women, on which they chiefly pride themselves, proves it.

The faculty in question is the one by which the obstacles of time and distance are overcome, and we are enabled to penetrate to the innermost spirit of things, and to revel on what is peculiar and racy belonging to all periods, places, and occasions, however remote or dissimilar. That the French have not this faculty (or in a very slight degree), is proved by what Voltaire says of them, confirmed as it is by what they still say of themselves, and what we daily see. He affirms that his nation “ridicules every thing that is not to be found in its own usages :” this is to state, in other

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\* We speak of a *Frenchman* as the general representative of the nation, in its most received opinions, and most popular tastes; its public and particular histories. Of course we are prepared to acknowledge the existence of many exceptions and variations in France, which do not enter into the national portrait.

words, that it can *comprehend* nothing else. Elsewhere he remarks, that the French "will tolerate nothing which has need of an excuse;" and, as they fancy that every thing has need of an excuse, which does not fall within their own usages, we are thus again brought round to their want of imagination. La Harpe, in accounting for the dislike of classic pastoral amongst his countrymen, says, "It is necessary to read the *Idylls* of Theocritus with the feelings of a Sicilian peasant, and this to a Frenchman is impossible." A subsequent article in this number, from the pen of a foreign writer, mentions that *Athalie*, the best production of French dramatic genius, has fallen into unpopularity, because it is *Jewish*. All this is accounted for by deficiency of imagination, the faculty whose spell transmutes, changes, conveys, and identifies, as it may be necessary, the past, the present, and the future. Rousseau says, in his *Essay on the Origin of Language*, that "persons who have no imagination live only for themselves," that is, they think every thing ridiculous which does not precisely square with their own habits. When Shylock exclaims of the jewel, which he is told his daughter has given away for a monkey, that it was Leah's present, and he would not have bartered it for a *wilderness* of monkeys, we have an instance, in this "fine hebraism," as an acute critic has termed it, of the power of imagination. Shakspeare, when he wrote this, was a Jew in traditionary feeling and national recollection. On the other hand, it is want of imagination, or rather positive dulness of fancy, that leads Voltaire to ridicule the device of accounting for Desdemona's love of the Moor, by the interest which Othello's tales of "Antres vast," and "Anthropophagi," excited in her mind: these would never have won the *belle*, he says,—thinking probably of Madame Denis. Fontaine, however, the most imaginative of all the French writers of late times, except Bossuet, knew better, and might have taught Voltaire better. He accounts for the attachment of Venus to Mars in the following lines:—

"En peu de temps Mars emporta la dame:  
Il la gagna, peut-être, en lui contant sa  
flame:

Peut-être conta-t-il ses sieges, ses combats,  
Parla de contre-scarpes, et cent autres mer-  
veilles,

Que les femmes n'entendent pas;  
Et dont pourtant les mots sont doux à leurs  
oreilles."

We remember to have heard one of our own critics object to the use of the word "fatness" in the fine English translation of the *Psalms*, saying, it put him in mind of *greuse*. Such an objection is truly French, and the judgment from which it could spring will generally be found forming part of a disposition, addicted to the besetting French faults of levity in the most important matters, and vanity in the most silly. This deficiency in the faculty of imagination, ensures, however, a sort of steady decent air to the French style: it is not liable to be misunderstood by limited comprehensions, and provides that the slowest understandings are not exposed to be left far in the rear of an author's object. It acts as a preservative against all such works as the *Beggar's Opera*, for instance,—one of the most exquisite in our language, and which seven-eighths of our people at present think stupid vulgar nonsense. In the days of Addison, Pope, Swift, and Bolingbroke, however, they saw further into the secrets of things, and could find a moral, when it was necessary, without the help of a maxim.

Cabanis, an esteemed French medical and metaphysical writer, not long dead, affirms that the language of his country is poor in words adapted to express the operations of the imagination. Schlegel has said, that the French language is rich in terms that give facility to the communications of that faculty, which is perhaps best represented in English by the word *cleverness*. A writer in the *Edinburgh Review* observes, very justly, on this remark, made by the German critic:—*then they must be a clever people*. We agree with him, and, on the same principle, deduce, from what Cabanis has said, that they are a people with little power of imagination.\* From this fact, an important light is shed on

\* "La langue est le tableau de la vie; c'est l'assemblage de toutes les idées d'un peuple, manifesté au dehors par des sons." Thomas.

their criticism. What they do not possess themselves, they misunderstand and dislike in others: for want of the faculty, they cannot relish its external symbols; and this supplies a key to the general run of their criticisms on Shakspeare.

Looking to the number of the English authors whom the French critics cite in terms of praise, more or less high, we have no reason to complain of their niggardliness. Nay, if national vanity merely were concerned, we might be happy to find them making up for our own deficiencies, and celebrating abroad those of whom we make but little account at home. The French do not say that we have few or no good writers: they affirm we have many excellent, but prefer our worst. Voltaire makes us a compensation for his ridicule of Shakspeare, by his admiration of Aaron Hill, of whom he says, that he "excelled all other English authors in knowledge of the theatre." The same critic is also candid enough to express astonishment, that such pieces as *Macbeth*, the *Tempest*, *Lear*, *Hamlet*, *Romeo and Juliet*, should be tolerated by a nation which can boast of "*le Cato d'Addison!*" He, however, accounts for so strange an inconsistency in this way: "in London," he says, "the chairmen, the sailors, the hackney-coachmen, the shopmen, the butchers, and the clerks, are passionately fond of dramatic entertainments; and these common people find, in the tragedies of Shakspeare, all that is naturally calculated to please them."

We may derive from this paragraph a good deal of new information, if we carefully analyze its precious contents. From it may be gathered, first, that Addison's *Cato* is a finer play than any of those of Shakspeare which we have named above: secondly, that the common people of London are distinguished by a fondness for dramatic spectacles—that is to say, are more inclined to go to the theatres than the common people of Paris! (Messrs. Harris and Elliston must be delighted to hear this.) Thirdly, that the characters of *Juliet*, of *Hamlet*, of *Jacques*, of *Prospero*, of *Ariel*, of *Lear*, of *Desdemona*, of *Othello*, are levelled point blank at the tastes and intellects of our hackney coachmen, &c.:—and, fourthly,

that our good judges, from the days of Dryden, downward,—Pope, Akenside, Goldsmith, Warton, and, in our own times, Jeffery, Lamb, Walter Scott, Wordsworth, Hazlitt, Coleridge, inclusive, would gladly make Shakspeare give place to Aaron Hill, and are only hindered from effecting so desirable a reform by the undue ascendancy of our mob in questions of literary criticism!

In his *Dissertation sur la Tragedie*, Voltaire affirms, that "*Hamlet* is a piece so gross and barbarous, that it would not be borne by the vilest of the populace in France or Italy:" and yet, he says, Mr. Pope, whom he esteems an excellent judge, admired it. He does not seem at all to suspect that the latter fact tends to invalidate the previous opinion. In several parts of his works he represents the English people as more generally enlightened than those of any other country; but, in the matter of Shakspeare, they are degraded below Neapolitan lazzaroni! This is exquisitely French: it reminds us of a recent criticism on Schlegel's *Dramatic Lectures*, published in Paris; in which it is stated that the author brings vast stores of knowledge, and much talent, to his work: that he understands perfectly well the Greek, Latin, English, Spanish theatres; but, *in regard to the French*, he is quite ignorant—and knows nothing whatsoever!

Commenting on the soliloquy, "Oh that this too too solid flesh would melt," Voltaire says, "a country bumkin at a French fair, would express himself with more decency, and in more noble language!" His pretended translations of our author, are sometimes intentionally falsified:—where it is possible that he meant them to be faithful, they will be fairly characterized by calling them a monkey's imitation of the actions of a man: we laugh at them as the ridiculous tricks of a ludicrous but offensive animal; the grotesque absurdity of the imitation, however, does not put us out of humour with the original. His criticisms on Shakspeare, considered generally, afford admirable proofs of the depth and richness, of that vein of *saine philosophie* from which we are recommended to extract the intellectual and moral treasures of the present age: an age that has the opportunity, we are told,

of becoming affluent beyond all former example, if it will only avail itself of the valuable discovery. In this respect these criticisms are worth much more attention than otherwise would be due to them: they are in complete consistency with the character by which they were produced, and we may judge of the latter by its fruits. In them also may be seen types of the magnanimity and good faith of the school which takes that character for its guide and model. We may from them calculate the elevation of that range, which the new philosophy takes in its flight towards improvement and truth, and estimate the extent of the sphere, within which it would exercise the faculties of the human mind. As Voltaire has treated Hamlet, so has he treated religious feeling,—and we shall see how fair that treatment is by referring to what he calls a translation of the scene in which Horatio's magnificent speech, “in the most high and palmy state of Rome, &c.” is introduced:—

“Deux soldats étant en sentinelle, à la porte du Palais de Claudius, l'un dit à l'autre, Comment s'est passée ton heure de garde? Fort bien; je n'ai pas entendu une souris trotter. Après quelques propos pareils, un spectre paraît, vêtu à peu près comme le feu roi Hamlet. L'un des deux soldats dit à son camarade—Parle à ce revenant, toi, car tu as étudié. Volontiers, dit l'autre. Arrête et parle, fantôme, je te l'ordonne,—parle! Le fantôme disparaît sans répondre. Les deux soldats étonnés, raisonnent sur cette apparition. Le soldat docteur se ressouvient d'avoir ouï dire, que la même chose étoit arrivée à Rome du temps de la mort du Cæsar: les tombeaux s'ouvrirent, les morts dans leurs linceuls s'écrièrent et sautèrent dans les rues de Rome. C'est sûrement un présage de quelque grand événement. A ces paroles le revenant reparait encore. Une sentinelle lui crie: Fantôme, que veux-tu? Puis-je faire quelque chose pour toi! Viens-tu pour quelque trésor caché? Alors le coq chante. Le spectre s'en retourne à pas lents; les sentinelles se proposent de lui donner un coup de hallebarde pour l'arrêter; mais il s'enfuit, et ces soldats concluent que c'est l'usage que les esprits s'enfuient au chant du coq.”

This then is the operation of, the “saine philosophie,” on poetry! and it evinces as much knowledge, and as much integrity in its operations on other matters. We may affirm it, then, from this specimen,  
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to be blind as the beetle to the nobler impulses of man's immortal nature; grovelling as the muck-worm in its self-conceit; and spiteful as the adder against beauties of which it cannot but perceive the existence. There are about equal proportions of malevolent and of dull misrepresentation in Voltaire's version just quoted. It is false that the ghost appears on the scene to two sentinels, and that one of them says to the other “speak to it, for you have gone through your studies.” The two soldiers, in consequence of what they had seen on a former night, have called in Horatio, the companion of Hamlet, naturally interested in all that relates to the father of his friend, and, from his intimacy with the Prince Royal, to be supposed gifted with superior attainments. Their appeal to him to address the awful appearance, because he is more learned than they, is therefore strictly consistent with his and their characters, and is further a fine touch of truth, both as it refers to the received popular belief, and to what would be the natural impulse of the human heart on so trying an occasion. This is so evident, and the incident forms altogether so excellent an example of strict art, that one refers the misrepresentation here to malignity. The picturesque grandeur of the line,

“In the most high and palmy state of Rome!” which causes the mind to look upward, as it were, to contemplate the wide-spreading loftiness of Roman grandeur; to feel over-canopied by the magnificence of ancient times, and the glory of a classical people:—to this, and to the power of the rest of the description, which presents to the awe-struck eye of fancy “tenantless graves,” the “sheeted dead,” and “stars sick almost to doomsday with eclipse,”—we can easily suppose that the French philosopher's heart and intellect were impervious. Their beauties are far above the taste of one who has proscribed the Ode, as “unworthy of an enlightened people on account of its exaggerations.”—In pursuing his account of the first scene of Hamlet, Voltaire degrades into risible French, the exquisite music and heavenly grace of the following passage:—

“It faded on the crowing of the cock. Some say, that ever 'gainst that season come,

Wherein our Saviour's birth is celebrated,  
 The bird of dawning singeth all night long;  
 And then, they say, no spirit dares stir  
     abroad;  
 The nights are wholesome; then no planets  
     strike,  
 No fairy takes, nor witch hath power to  
     charm,  
 So hallow'd and so gracious is the time.

"This," says Voltaire, with uplifted hands over his own parody; "is one of the passages which Pope has marked as fine!" And then he asks, with mingled amazement and indignation, how Warburton could possibly condescend to become a commentator on such stuff! And now, after this, will any Englishman consider the opinion of this man on any point connected with human feeling, or the elements of human nature, as worth one instant's serious reflection?

Proofs of ignorance and malignity, without number, might be cited from the French philosopher's notices of our two national poets, Shakspeare and Milton: to go through them, however, would tire the patience without effecting any useful purpose. The state of extreme ignorance, in which he often sat down to treat of important and interesting subjects, receives one remarkable proof in an observation which we find in his remarks on English Tragedy:—"the modern British authors," he says, "all copy Shakspeare; but that which succeeded in him, is hissed in them." An Englishman looks in vain even for the attempts of such copies: scarcely one can be cited. One more proof of his intentional falsehood, and we shall close the evidence against him. In a note to *l'homme aux quarante écus*, he sneers at Mr. Home, "grand juge d'Ecosse," for praising the "divine Shakspeare;" and affirms that Mr. Home gives for example, a speech, made by "my Lord Falstaff, *Chef de Justice*, on presenting a prisoner to the King!" *My Lord Falstaff, Chief Justice*, must be a new personage to the readers of Shakspeare's plays: and the speech in question, which Voltaire censures on

the ground that it is unsuitable to the solemn and august character of the speaker, is given, in the Elements of Criticism, as an example of wit, shewn by ludicrous images. Surely this will warrant our saying with Stuart,— "one can respect the honest doubts of philosophy; but is it possible to withhold indignation and scorn, when ability stoops to be uncharitable and disingenuous; when bigotry presses her folly, and spits her venom?"

In the train of this ignorance and misrepresentation they all follow—little dogs and all—that is to say La Harpe, Geoffroy, Jouy, and Jay. The first, who was lecturer to the ladies and gentlemen of Paris, thus defines the portion of fame fairly due to Dante and to Milton:—"They knew the ancient writers, and, if we still remember their names, in connection with some monstrous works, it is because one finds in these monsters some fine parts, executed according to the rules." He adds,—"Shakspeare even, barbarous as he was, was not entirely deficient in reading, and had some knowledge." In the Index to La Harpe's Course of Literature, we observe the following reference—"Obstinacy of the English on the opinion they entertain of Shakspeare." In the passage to which this reference directs us, he kindly cautions that the *incontestable superiority*\* of the French theatre, should not lead his countrymen to conclude that the English are as much inferior, to the fine writers of the age of Louis XIV., in natural talent, as in the charms of composition: the former, says the Lecturer, "have not been assisted equally with the latter, by public intelligence and taste: on the contrary, they have been compelled to submit to the coarse desires of the multitude; and, hence, though English literature, generally speaking, underwent a most important purification in the reign of Charles II.—elevating it very much above its previous condition,—yet the stage was but little influenced by the improvement." To account more clearly for this unlucky exception, he repeats Voltaire's nonsense, already

\* Which is contested by the best critics of every other nation, and by many of the best among themselves! Yet we will say this for the body of French dramatic literature, that we know nothing equal to it in perfect conformity to a preconceived and servilely followed model of beauty: that it involves talent of the highest order,—and forms a class in literature, distinct, complete, and, in its faults and its beauties, national, though copied.

noticed, about the extreme popularity of theatrical amusements in England, and the influence which the common people exercise over them,—in consequence, he adds, *of the important part they play in politics.* This last circumstance, as he explains to his fortunate hearers, gives to the English populace an authority which the same class possess no where else. It is they (the multitude) who esteem Shakspeare the first dramatic poet of their country, and, by their rude suffrages, they overpower the voice of enlightened judges, who willingly acknowledge that this favourite of the nation cannot stand a comparison with the great French writers!

Such is the substance of La Harpe's notice of "*l'obstination des Anglois sur le sentiment qu'ils ont de Shakspeare.*" As far as English readers are concerned, it would not be worth while to say a word in comment: the gross ignorance of the man is betrayed in every line: but we believe our Magazine is likely to have some readers out of England, and for their sakes a few words may be pardoned. Among these "enlightened judges," then, noticed by La Harpe, Pope, at least, is not included, for he shared the opinion of the "populace," in regard to the merits of Shakspeare. Now, the Lecturer (still probably only repeating Voltaire) affirms that "Pope is full of taste, formed on the principles of the best schools:"—it follows, then, that the Parisian Lecturer, is wrong—either in his opinion of Shakspeare, or of Pope,—or, which is most likely, of both. In fact, among these "enlightened judges," cannot be found any one of our distinguished poets, or any critic of high name. We possess, indeed, one or two authors, of distinguished talent in their particular class, who have avowedly adopted the French model; but it is evident that they form exceptions to, rather than illustrations of, the legitimate national sentiment in questions of literature. Hume is one of these; and, he proves, in every respect, what we have just said. It is, however, worthy of notice, that Gibbon, who may also be said to belong to this class, alludes, in one of his later writings, to his opinion in favour of the French Dramatists, and describes it as an

effect of the peculiar circumstances of his situation in youth. These circumstances he regrets, as having perpetuated in his mind a certain infirmity of judgment, of which he was conscious, but which he could not entirely shake off. A Scotch gentleman, named Mercer,—an elegant minded man, whose reputation has not travelled much beyond the obscure spot where he spent the decline of his life, but who has there left many recollections of his talents in the breasts most able to appreciate real talent,—states in the same way, in one of his little works,—that he "acquired his early love of literature in France, where he got a taste for the recondite and regular, which he unlearned with trouble at a later period."

It may be pronounced therefore to be both foolish and unfair in the French critics to tell us that the triumph of Shakspeare rests only on the applause of our vulgar:—it may be a very absurd and barbarous sentiment that secures it,—but at least it is shared by all our ranks of intellect and condition;—or rather it is an opinion which has slowly acquired universality and force through the constantly successive admiration of the learned and able men that have succeeded him, and which is entertained also by all the greatest minds of which foreign countries can boast—France alone furnishing an exception. A German critic, of acknowledged first-rate talent, declares that he has studied and contemplated Shakspeare for thirty years of his life; and when the French can quote any one foreigner who has said half as much of any one of their poets, we shall begin to think they may have reason, sufficient at least to pass in France, for styling the superiority of their theatre "*incontestable.*" They may, if they please, deny that we have ever produced a single competent judge of such matters, but they cannot, with any appearance of consistency, place on their own side the decisions of our wisdom, and oppose it to what they call the infatuation of our folly. The fame of Shakspeare, is the mature, yet still freshening, fruit of quickened sympathy and protracted experience.\* One of our writers the most imbued

\* Boileau says,—"*Lorsqu'un ouvrage frappe tout le monde, il ne faut pas chercher*

with classical feeling, and fullest of the associations which classical study brings into the mind, thus enumerates some of the properties of that extraordinary being, whom French critics tell us is only admired by our ignorant populace. We allude to Akenside: he calls upon youth and age, the poor and the rich, kings and slaves, soldiers and citizens, lovers and haters, the happy and the miserable, to crowd round Shakspeare's marble bust,—and, standing at the foot of his monument,

"Say to each other this was Shakspeare's form,  
Who walk'd in every path of human life;  
Felt every passion; and to all mankind  
Doth now, will ever, that experience yield,  
Which his own genius only could acquire."

We refer the reader of this article to our *Critical Notices of New Books*, in the present Number, where he will find some extracts from a delightful little work — "*Morgan's Dramatic Character of Falstaff*,"— lately republished—which he may consider as a continuation of the present subject.

### OBSERVATIONS ON THE NATURE AND IMPORTANCE OF MEDICAL JURISPRUDENCE.

IMPORTANT as are the duties which a medical man has daily to perform in restoring health and alleviating human sufferings, there are others of a more public nature, of no less importance, which he is sometimes called upon to discharge, and which claim an equal share of his study and attention. He is not unfrequently required to give evidence, in a court of justice, on cases affecting the dearest interests of the community; and on his opinion may depend the life, the property, the liberty, or the reputation, of a fellow creature. In his professional capacity he may be called on to decide, whether a person has died from accident, violence, or natural causes;—whether the deceased has been murdered, or whether, with his own hand, he has put a period to his existence;—whether an individual be in such possession of his mental faculties as renders him competent to the management of his affairs, and makes him responsible for his actions;—or whether, from the loss, or perversion of reason, the noblest of our faculties, it may not be requisite, for the security of society, to deprive him of one of our first blessings,—liberty itself.

In questions of legitimacy, pregnancy, poisoning, defloration, and infanticide,—a medical opinion is al-

ways required; as well as in many cases where the health and welfare of the public are affected by the circumstances of trade, commerce, and police. In these, and in a multitude of cases, both criminal and civil, the decision of the court will, in a great measure,—perhaps entirely,—depend on medical evidence.

This application of the science of medicine to the composition of laws, and the administration of justice, is called *Medical Jurisprudence*; or, in its more comprehensive application,—*Forensic Medicine*.

When the body of an individual is found, after death, under circumstances which create suspicion; whether these circumstances arise out of the situation in which it is discovered, or the appearances which it exhibits,—justice, as well as the public voice, naturally requires, that an immediate investigation should take place. In accounting for occurrences of this description, it unfortunately too often happens, that the popular opinion exhibits more of zeal than of cool and correct judgment. The abhorrence so universally, and so naturally entertained of an assassin, with the love of the marvellous, so characteristic of the multitude, and the powerful influence of prejudice, are so many disqualifications for a calm

des raisons, ou plutôt des vaines subtilités, pour s'empêcher d'en être frappé; mais faire si bien que nous trouvions nous-mêmes les raisons pourquoi il frappe." Again:—"Car, lorsqu'un grand nombre de personnes, différentes de profession et d'âge, et qui n'ont aucune rapport, ni d'humeurs, ni d'inclinations, vient à être frappé également, ce jugement, et cette approbation uniforme, de tant d'esprits, si discordans d'ailleurs, est une preuve, certaine et indubitable, qu'il y a là du merveilleux et du grand."

and dispassionate investigation of a transaction involved in obscurity. Thus it often happens, that the most precipitate, violent, and unjust opinions are formed of occurrences, which, under a cool and deliberate course of inquiry, would be found to admit of a satisfactory explanation. The most limited acquaintance with history will convince any one, how very prone the vulgar are to indulge in foul suspicions respecting the death of exalted, or important personages; and if such circumstances are calculated to excite surmises of an unfavourable nature, it is not surprising that they should be entertained in cases, where death has been sudden and unexpected, or where the body exhibits marks of violence, or of diseased action.

Though we are ready to admit the beneficial consequences resulting from this watchful guardianship which the community consider themselves entitled to exercise over the lives and safety of their fellow citizens, we cannot altogether overlook the disadvantages attending it. While we lament the evils which spring from the operation of our worst passions, we must not forget that we have frequently to regret the consequences which occasionally arise from the injudicious indulgence of our best feelings. It would be no difficult task to adduce abundant proofs of the unfortunate consequences of the character which we have ascribed to the judicial decisions of the populace; and of the important aid which legal enquiries may derive from scientific knowledge, and professional experience. Deaths, which at first were considered as the consequence of some injury, inflicted by a desperate or malicious hand, have been traced by a skilful anatomist to a very different cause. Some of our most fatal diseases carry on their unremitting work of destruction in silence, and unobserved, until the fatal moment, which arrives perhaps in the midst of security and seeming high health. How often do we see life unexpectedly extinguished by the progress of some latent internal disease; the rupture of a blood vessel or the bursting of an abscess; events which are most likely to happen in the heat of altercation, in the midst of a scuffle, or in a paroxysm of rage. Hence we so fre-

quently find cases of this nature made the subject of judicial proceedings, which can only be satisfactorily determined by having recourse to medical evidence. The professional knowledge and anatomical skill, which so often serve to detect the criminal, are no less frequently, and certainly far more gratefully instrumental, in tranquillizing the public mind, and perhaps rescuing from unmerited ignominy some innocent object of popular suspicion. The works of writers on the subject of Medical Jurisprudence, teem with instances, where the labours of medical men have been successful in bringing to justice the perpetrators of the darkest and most atrocious crimes, which otherwise would have passed unnoticed and unexpiated. They, at the same time, contain many instances in which an expert anatomist has been the happy means of demonstrating, to the full satisfaction of the legal tribunal, and the complete justification of the accused, the real cause of death. In these cases the most common grounds for the erroneous opinions respecting the way in which the deceased came by his death, have been the external appearances of the body, coupled with some previous circumstances in the history of the individual;—perhaps an altercation with a neighbour, a blow inflicted, or a degree of malice or ill-will, known to have been entertained by the suspected person. A superficial or common observer is very apt to err on such occasions. Some of those changes, which the body undergoes after death, from the spontaneous decomposition of its constituent parts, have a very great resemblance, in appearance, to marks of violence inflicted during life. There is no case in which a proper discrimination is more necessary and important than in this sort of inspection; and there are too many instances on record, where not only the spectators, but the medical attendants likewise, have been misled into an erroneous opinion respecting the cause of death by a hasty, careless, or ignorant investigation of the appearances which were observed on the surface of the body. The most recent, and certainly one of the most important examples of this nature, is to be found in the examination into the causes of the death of John Lees before the Co-

roner at Oldham. Here the medical men, whose decision was awaited with the utmost anxiety by a whole empire, founded the most contradictory opinions on the appearances discoverable on the body of the deceased; each leading to a conclusion, respecting the cause of death, diametrically opposed to the others. No case can place in a stronger light the importance of a particular cultivation of this branch of medicine by the profession; and also the advantages which would attend a more general diffusion of some knowledge of this nature among the gentlemen of the bar; for a few judicious questions put to the medical witnesses, by ascertaining the grounds on which their evidence rests,—would generally at last elicit the truth.

The same observations may be applied to cases, where the deceased has been supposed to have died in consequence of the criminal or accidental administration of poison. The derangement of the system which this deleterious class of substances produce, are of the most violent and rapid nature; but a medical man knows, that effects extremely similar in their character, may arise in particular constitutions, either spontaneously or from the action of substances which are not usually reckoned poisonous. He will not, therefore, consider the mere assemblage of violent symptoms as convincing proof of the action of poison; but will suspend his opinion until he be enabled to ascertain the quality of the contents of the stomach and bowels, and detect, by means of chemical tests, the presence of the minutest quantity of poisonous matter. The extreme nicety, and the great accuracy with which chemical operations are now conducted, enable the expert chemist to detect the smallest quantity of mineral poisons, however disguised and involved it may be by its mixture with the food or juices contained in the stomach; and, by means of his art, he is in the constant practice of demonstrating, in the clearest manner, the cause of death resulting from violence of this kind, where otherwise it would have been all conjecture and suspicion.

It would be easy to enlarge upon the extensive range of important matters of this class, which must be ne-

cessarily submitted for decision to the skill and integrity of a medical man; but enough has been already said to place his professional character, and public capacity, in a far more exalted position than was contemplated even when he was styled the professor of the *Divine art*.

When we consider the distinguished alliance thus shown to exist between medicine and justice, an alliance so honourable to the healing art and so important to the interests of society, we cannot avoid expressing our wonder and regret at the indifference with which it is regarded by the legislature, and the little care with which it is cultivated by the profession in this country. Of all our Universities, one only possesses a chair from which this branch of medical science is taught; and this does not date its establishment beyond a few years back. Further,—although in almost every instance in which an individual has been supposed to have lost his life by violence, a medical man is employed to investigate the cause of death, yet, in our judicial codes, there are no instructions relative to the selection of a competent person for that important office. The appointment is usually left to the relations of the deceased, or to any one who may feel inclined to interest himself in the case, without any regard being paid to the qualifications of the individual thus appointed or interfering, or to the rank which he holds in the profession. A person thus placed, perhaps by accident, in a situation of the first responsibility, receives no instructions how to proceed; attends to no regulated forms in his inspection of the body, takes no minutes of the appearances which present themselves, and leaves the chamber of death merely to report according to the best of his recollection, at some distant period, on the awful question! When the day of trial arrives, the evidence is delivered without regularity or precision, depending often for its force and colouring on the skill and regularity of the contending council, whose interest and aim are, not unfrequently, to perplex the novice and invalidate his testimony. A physician of greater eminence is perhaps appealed to, and delivers a different opinion, which may lead to a different decision from

what was anticipated. But it more commonly happens, that, amidst these conflicting opinions, the question, instead of being elucidated, becomes involved in greater obscurity, and the case is discharged with the satisfactory plea, of "who shall decide when doctors differ."

This is no overcharged picture. It is indeed what might be expected from the unmerited neglect of this branch of the profession; a neglect with which we are charged by enlightened foreigners. It is a picture, in short, which any one who is at all conversant with the history of Medico-judicial trials, will readily acknowledge to be a faithful one.

On the Continent they have anticipated us in paying attention to this subject, and have far outstripped us in the progress they have made. From the first establishment of Forensic Medicine in France and Germany, in the time of Francis I, and Charles V, it has met with no small encouragement from the governments of those countries, and, from successive enactments of their legislatures, it has been enabled to keep pace with the advancement of those sciences on which it immediately depends. According to the French code, in every case where there are appearances of violent death, or other circumstances which give rise to suspicion, the body must not be buried until it has been inspected by a magistrate, accompanied by a physician or surgeon (*officier de santé*) whose duty it is to draw up a report of the state of the body, and the opinion he has formed respecting the cause of death. To ensure the observance of these wise regulations, whoever shall, without proper authority, inter a body in cases where such rules are prescribed, shall be punished with fine and imprisonment. (*Code Napoleon.*)

In Germany the law is still more particular and imperative. In the German Universities medical jurisprudence is made an indispensable branch of medical education, and such facilities are afforded by the legislature for the prosecution of its study, as cannot fail to render its theory and practice of easy acquisition. A code of rules is published, by which examinations are to be conducted and reports drawn up. All bodies which are not claimed, or which are found

under suspicious circumstances, are publicly inspected before the students; and, throughout the Austrian dominions, a law exists, that every death shall be attested by the physician or surgeon who attended the patient, and who shall at the same time certify whether the disease was contagious or not.

These regulations are extremely judicious and highly worthy of imitation in other countries. The advantages which the public would derive from the more general diffusion of a knowledge of judicial medicine are obvious;—but we must not overlook the benefit which would accrue to the profession itself by a particular cultivation of this subject.

It cannot be denied, that much of the obscurity and uncertainty in which medicine is involved, has arisen from a false mode of reasoning, which has been employed to introduce and support opinions alike discreditable to it as a science, and incompatible with its object as an useful art. Its most eminent and successful cultivators have always considered its perfection as only to be obtained by a patient observation, and a diligent accumulation of facts; for these they justly regarded as the sole and indispensable basis of good reasoning. The rigid adherence to the proper principles of evidence, and the utter inadmissibility in a court of justice of all testimony depending on assumption or supposition, would be advantageously applied to medical reasoning in general; and would contribute in no small degree to banish those vague and hypothetical doctrines which have so long retarded the progress of medicine.

By a general cultivation, and a liberal encouragement of this department of medicine, therefore, the public would be materially benefited, and the immediate improvement of the science itself would be promoted. Both these objects would perhaps be most certainly secured, by the appointment of competent professional individuals in every district, who should be called upon, in cases requiring a medical investigation, or opinion. By these means the character of the art for usefulness and respectability would no longer be endangered, by its most delicate and public cases being consigned to the

ignorant, the timid, or the inexperienced.

After having said so much on the nature and object of medical jurisprudence, it will not be necessary to enlarge upon the qualifications required for the proper performance of its duties. Whoever would discharge these important functions with honour to himself and satisfaction to the public, must necessarily possess properties of a superior order, and extensive nature. To an accurate knowledge of his profession, as far as regards the nature and treatment of diseases, he must join an intimate acquaintance with the accessory branches

of medical education; particularly natural history and chemistry. With these lights to guide him, and truth for his object, he must proceed fearlessly in his investigations, unbiassed by prejudice, unawed by clamour, and uninfluenced by the prospect of reward, or the apprehension of danger. His task must always be an arduous, and sometimes an unpleasant one; and when finished his best consolation may be the conviction of having faithfully performed it. But, sooner or later, the probability is, that his services would be duly appreciated and acknowledged.

W. M. I.

## SENTIMENTALITIES ON THE FINE ARTS;

BY JANUS WEATHERCOCK, ESQ.

(To be continued when he is in the Humour.)

### No. I.

GOETHE'S FAUSTUS.—The Germans have long been giving proofs, that they possess one great requisite for succeeding both in poetry and its sister arts: we mean a very original and powerful fancy: but this same fancy of theirs, like a fiery young steed (we believe this is the approved simile in such a case), requires a great deal of chastising and better training, before it can avail its master much in the tug of war. In painting, they have forced a monstrous and unnatural alliance, between the sublime nonsense of Goltzius, Spranger, John Ab Ach, C. Van Mander, &c. &c. and the dry, Gothic, ludicrous, matter-of-fact work of old Durer. They have done something very like this in their poetry and romances—the lovely and loving Undine always excepted. The author of this prose poem, has, with an earnest fervour which spreads itself to the reader, rendered the existence of such a being as his heroine, not merely sufficiently probable for the purposes of poetry, but apparently certain in point of fact. Her last words—“*I am here, and now you must die*”—whenever we think of them, seem to breathe a chill wind through the marrow of our bones, as

they really and truly did through that of her guilty Hulbrand! And yet we envy him his last moments, as they are thus described:—“Trembling with love, and the mingled fear of approaching death, he bent towards her. She kissed him with a heavenly kiss,—but she loosed him no more from her embrace: she wept as she would weep away her soul. He dropt from her arms a lifeless corse.”\*

These observations on the common style of German invention in the art of design, have been suggested by a sight of some large prints, lately imported, after pictures by Cornelius, painted, we believe, for the King of Bavaria. The subjects are taken from Goëthe's *Faustus*. These works are of mingled metal—silver and lead; but unfortunately the lead bears the undue proportion to the other of a hundred to one. At present, however, we have nothing to do with these. Our immediate business is with twenty-six etchings, taken from the same text-book, of which it is saying but little in comparison with their merits, when we assert that no artist in this country (save one who is seated too high in the lofty region of his fancies for any praise of ours to

\* “Undine, a Romance, translated from the German by G. Scane, A. B.”

reach him) can do the like.\* One fault they have, if it be one; they are not entirely in unison with the style of the author they profess to illustrate. They are composed, nearly throughout, with equal judgment, fire, and taste; whereas the wild, and, in the teeth of all its incongruities, pathetic tragedy of Goëthe, flutters doubtfully between the topmost height of sublimity and the bottomless pit of self-satisfied absurdity.

The accompanying descriptions to this volume of engravings being in German, it may be as well, in giving a list of the plates, to connect them together by a slight narrative, sufficient to show the relation they bear to one another.

Some of our readers may not be aware, that the Germans have not yet resigned that freedom of manner which may be considered as a proof of innocence or of impudence, according as it is traced to simplicity of heart, or contempt for things which most people consider sacred. In short, they take liberties with attributes, names, and characters, in which it would not be pardonable in us to follow them, because we have in our country got far beyond the patriarchal stage. They do not hesitate still to introduce the person of the Deity in compositions of a mixed nature: and No. 1 of this series represents a grand levee of the powers of Heaven, held before the throne of the Almighty, at which the rebellious Spirit of Mischief presents himself, according to the precedent furnished by the opening of the poem of Job. The devil is interrogated as to the cause of his appearance; and it may be sufficient to state, that a dialogue takes place, in which the shining virtues of Faustus are cited by his Maker, as proof against the seductions of the tempter, who replies, with proud scorn, that this supposed infallible being has never yet been properly tried. "Let the protecting care of Providence be withdrawn from him, and, if he be

left entirely to me, I flatter myself we shall soon see a change!" It is ordained that the experiment shall be made accordingly; but Satan does not get off without a sarcasm from Gabriel on the failure of a former attempt of this nature on the man of Uz.

No. 2. Faustus and his friend Wagner are walking in the fields. *An odd looking dog commences running round them, appropriating more and more with every circle he describes.*

*Wagner.* I smell an odd smell hereabouts.

*Faust.* (carelessly). Yes—it comes from that rough tyke yonder: what a train of sulphur he leaves in his wake!

Wagner sees neither the dog nor the train of sulphur, and concludes that his friend is mad. Faustus, not liking stray phosphoric curs, walks home to his study.

No. 3. Faustus is engaged amongst his books, his mind intent on adding to the already vast stores of his learning. He hears a noise behind his book-case; challenges the cause of the disturbance, and our brimstone dog stalks forth, with his strange physiognomy, and uncouth figure. He begins to puff and swell till he becomes as big as an elephant.—"What's all this mummery," says the undaunted Faustus; "go about your business!" The hell-cur replies, that the holy relics over the door hinder him from going out that way; and it is against his orders to return the way he came. Soft music lulls the Doctor to sleep. When he awakes, the dog is gone; but a Cavalier, with a strange expression of face, is by his side,—and the interview terminates with the unhappy consent of Faustus to sign, in his own blood, a compact with the enemy,—induced, by the pride of knowledge, to rely on his own innate power ultimately to baffle and outwit the fiend.

No. 5. Cavalier Faustus (Doctor

\* And let not therefore our good old Stothard be grieved; he is the first artist of the age in his way; but when he works at the stronger passions, it is "invitâ Minervâ."—His forte lies in sketching (for his most finished pictures are, in point of execution, but sketches) gentle women (witness the lovely females in his designs for the 4to Telemachus), tranquil old men, portraits of his own mind, and all the softer emotions of private life. His drawings for Stockdale's Robinson Crusoe, 2 vols. 8vo. 1790, engraved by Medland, would do honour to Raffaele both for composition and subtle penetration into the secret springs of the mind as they act on the outward man.

now no longer) is introduced by the knight of the cloven foot into a society of jolly toppers. This is one of the most felicitous plates of the collection. The attitude of the devil, who is entertaining the company by some juggling tricks, is, as the French say, superb. The obstreperous mirth of the party, however, though aided by the charm of novelty, produces only disgust in the high-minded Faustus.

No. 6. Presents us with an interior view of a witch's domicile. Crowns and jewels are in vain paraded before the rigid philosopher. There is now evidently but one resource left. In a magic mirror, our hero is made to view his future mistress, Margaret, extended on her bed. Mephistophiles is at once relieved from all his fears: he sees that Faustus is his own!

No. 7. Faustus drinks with the witch and the fiend! The hag, at first, objects, that the strength of the infernal cordial is sufficient to corrode and burn mortal vitals. The devil assures her that her guest is *now* proof. Faustus, as he lifts the cup, sees a flame pass over the surface: he hesitates, but at last drinks, and then is as one that "knoweth good and evil."

No. 8. Is the first interview of Margaret and Faustus: she is *returning from church* when this unlucky meeting takes place.

No. 9. Interior of Margaret's bedroom. We can joke with the devil,—and make a mockery of sulphurous dogs;—but we must not profane female beauty and innocence. Margaret is undressing: preparing for rest by unrolling her fine hair. Her bed stands in the corner, curtained, and clean; the temple of purity and repose.

No. 10. Faustus, having gained admission into her chamber, by the contrivance of the devil, sits, in one of the finest attitudes ever invented, contemplating his sleeping mistress. —Mephistophiles enters with a casket, and, having warned Faustus that he snuffs the chill air of morn, deposits the jewels on the dressing table, and forces the now more deeply enamoured lover away.

No. 11. Margaret rises early; the jewels fill her with doubts and misgivings, but, dazzled by their bril-

liance, she determines to conceal them from her mother, and only to consult her neighbour Martha, (a very convenient old lady, as it turns out,) whom we find in—

No. 12. Fastening the bracelets on Margaret's delicate wrist, and paying her compliments on her own, and their excessive beauty. During this time the devil enters, and is seen in—

No. 13. Insidiously wheedling Martha, for the purpose of bringing about, through her means, that which actually takes place.

No. 14. The unrivalled flirtation of one couple, and the delicious tenderness of the other, speak for themselves.

The same may be said of—No. 15.

No. 16. The unhappy girl mourns the consequence of her easy compliance with swollen eyes. Tears gushing at every fresh remembrance, she leans lifelessly over her wheel, murmuring a low, melancholy song.

No. 17. The wretched creature, deserted, as she thinks, by her adored Faustus, flings herself before the image of her patron saint, in an agony of penitence; but in vain: her thoughts will not rise from earth and her lover.

No. 18. She enters a church during mass, and, kneeling amid the crowd, once more endeavours to bow down her heart before her God; but an Evil One is seen crouching close behind her! He brands on the mind of this young, and lately innocent creature, the burning image of her guilt, and of eternal damnation. Reader! cast thine eyes on the right of the print! look at the poor fainting, despairing girl! with cold, clayey, tight-clasped hands, blank eyes, half covered with their dewy lids, lost to outward objects, turned inwards on her soul, and conscious but to the horrible chaos there! Contemplate this exquisite but fallen creature, and then admire what art can do, when it only seeks to convey the power of nature.

No. 19. The runaway announces his return to his mistress, by a serenade, which he performs in company with his mysterious friend. A young stranger, in a military habit, approaches, and fiercely demands what is their business under that lady's casement? High words blow hot passions into a flame, and three

swords are quickly glancing in the cold moonlight.—“Push confidently,” says Mephistophiles to Faustus, “I will ward!” “Ward that!” thunders their antagonist; “’tis done,” is the reply, as the soldier’s weapon slides off the blade of the Demon cavalier. “Parry *this*, then!” (flinging a furious thrust at the face of his treacherous opponent)—“Why not?” says the devil;—at the same instant the rapier of Faustus appears under the shoulder-blade of their victim, and he falls stricken with death, while smoking blood pours from the double wound.—The grating of the swords has awakened the neighbours. The murderers escape: “*Lights! lights!*” Bolts rattle from within every door; old and young burst out; *Margaret* among the rest. She hears groans; pierces the buzzing circle—and sees—panting forth his last, unequal, thick accents, before his own loved home, *her brother!*

Nos. 21, and 22. Mephistophiles in order to drown the excessive grief of Faustus at his separation from his love, as well as to shield him from the hands of justice, takes him to a witches’ gala, held on the bleak summit of the Block-berg. In 21 we see the Doctor, staff in hand, straining up the bare rocks, encouraged by “Dan Sathanus,” and lighted by an inimitable “Will o’ the wisp.” In the background, the company are discovered hastening away with all possible expedition, according to their respective means, to the fete.—We must observe here that our hero seems the worst accommodated of the whole party in respect of a conveyance. In 22, the whole scene of iniquitous joviality bursts on our astonished eyes.—A great deal of amusement seems going on,—“pleasant but wrong.” Waltzing commences, and the “knight of the horse’s leg,” in vain urges Faustus to select a partner.—While endeavouring to overcome his objections to a lady dropping a little fire and a few toads from her rosy lips, the shape of Margaret appears, pale, faded, and with dishevelled hair.—Her altered looks, strike the guilty Faustus with horror; his love burns more furiously than ever, and he compels the unwilling devil to disclose all that had passed at the city during his absence.

Bowed to the very dust by the loss

of her affectionate and gallant son, and the disgrace of her fondly cherished daughter (for Margaret is discovered to be pregnant), the aged mother falls into an incurable illness. A sleeping dose, which Margaret administers to her, by the advice of the devil, takes too strong an effect: the old lady never wakes again.—The agony occasioned by this fresh loss, brings on the pangs of labour. In a fit of madness Margaret destroys her child! The body of her mother exhibits the appearance of poison. Suspicion falls upon *her*. Old Martha betrays the circumstance of her having been pregnant: she is accused of the double murder. In fine, she is laden with chains—hurried away raving mad to a dungeon—tried, condemned, and sentenced to be executed on the morrow! The blood of Faustus, runs a stream of fire during this horrid story.—He heaps on the devil (who receives all his reproaches with a heart-freezing grin) the deepest and wildest curses; and at last, commands him on his bond, to convey him to the wretched, deserted creature, that very night. The fiend obeys!—They mount two hell-horses, whose snorting fury devours the way before them, in their wild and flaming course.—Unearthly sights whirl past them, unheeded: the goal is won; they arrive at the city! The breath of Mephistophiles throws the guards into a supernatural sleep.—Griped in the hand of Faustus, the keys rattle in the door of Margaret’s dungeon. The lock gives way:—he bursts in.—Chained to the floor, grovelling in noisome damp straw, lies the late queen of his high fancies!—The light in his hand rouses her: She knows him:—and now a dreadful scene of mental agony takes place:—however, she refuses to escape with him, and determines to abide the death.—

A hoarse well-known voice calls without, “Off! off! the morning breaks!”—Furious with disappointment, Faustus attempts to force her away. Suddenly her form stiffens—her eye-balls turn upward—the arms of her lover fall numbed from her waist. To her, and to her only, the dungeon appears to open:—the heaven of heavens rolls above her dizzy sight—A loud, but thrillingly solemn choral hymn sails away on the air—

the golden trumpet rings out its blast—An awful voice is heard—"SHE IS TRIED!"—A dreadful silence follows—A sweet voice then issues forth: "SHE IS PARDONED!"—The choral hymn again swells like triumphant thunder. A wild-tossing sea of clouds, like an immense curtain, stretching from earth to heaven, intervenes, and conceals the whole from sight.—The saved creature stands, still bound in that beatific trance.—

"Thou foolish woman," Faustus begins—"Come, come, *our horses stamp*," breaks from the impatient devil in a dreadful tone! and, putting in an iron arm, he wrenches away the

miserable Faustus. The curtain drops.

If after the above (in our eyes at least) sentimental and pathetic description, there be found any amateurs residing in London, so blind to their own good, as not to put 12s. 6d. in their purses, and march right to the shop of Mr. Bohte, Foreign Book-seller, York Street, Covent-Garden, for the purpose of enriching themselves with a copy of Retch's *Outlines to Faustus*, we shall look on them as *Perditi*,—abandoned to a pernicious passion for pocketing paltry pelf, blind to the lustre of beauty, and deaf to the charm of eloquence.

### GYMNASTIC EXERCISES IN GERMANY:

THEIR INFLUENCE ON PERSONAL CHARACTER AND PUBLIC SPIRIT.

(Collected and arranged from a Quarterly Review, recently established at Vienna, entitled *Annals of Literature*.)

UNDER the name of *Tourneying* (TURNEN) a new method of practising Gymnastic Exercises has been introduced, within these few years, into the north of Germany; and it has been believed possible to combine objects of general education with this institution.

The plan may be said to have had its origin in the feeling, excited in the breasts of certain men of talent, warm patriots, by the national reverses of 1806. These they traced to the public degeneracy, and the latter they were inclined to attribute to the defects of German education. Fichte took up the matter in this light; and counselled another system, founded on more enlarged and energetic principles. The art of *tourneying* (as we shall call it in deference to the German word), was taken up by the friends of this philosopher, and considered as necessarily belonging to the general improvement which he recommended. Mr. Friederich Ludwig Jahn, who had already published his *German Nationality*, now conceived the idea of preparing boys by bodily exercises, for their future destination in life; and opened, in the spring of 1811, his first *tourneying-place* (TURNPLATZ) near Berlin. Under his personal direction,—he being a robust and active man,—various bodily exercises were practised by boys of all ages, subjected to rules intend-

ed to preserve safety and good order. The new master declares himself to have soon discovered, that, besides giving the intended bodily force and agility, his art was capable of being rendered the nurse of public spirit amongst the boys, and also of perseverance, and self-denial. This discovery (or imagined discovery) could not fail greatly to elevate the hopes of all those, who, with Fichte, expected better times only as the hard-earned result of the deeds of an improved posterity.

It happened, however, that when the war, which was crowned with success, broke out, the *tourneying* institutions had existed too short a time, and were too little extended, to furnish the army with any considerable number of combatants; and yet it ought to be acknowledged, that all the *tourneyers* who were capable of bearing arms, took the field, and some sacrificed their lives, not without glory, in the defence of their country.

After the peace, the zeal of the masters, the interest taken in these institutions by many of their admirers, and the inclination of the young people, not only maintained the work that was begun, but considerably advanced it. Their avowed object at the present time is, to employ the means of a vigorous education, in order to give to the youth of Germany,

strength of body, and energy of soul ; not now indeed with a view to the future deliverance of their country, but to maintain the independence happily recovered.

There are now, we believe, sixty flourishing tourneying schools in Germany ;—most of them are to be found in the towns of the Prussian monarchy ;\* but several also are established in other states and free cities ; partly maintained by superior authority, and partly undertaken and supported by well-meaning private persons.

Opinions, nevertheless, are still much divided respecting this new branch of public education. Its friends and enemies are violently opposed to each other ; and we see ranged on each side, not merely private individuals, but even statesmen and governments. One of the worst effects of the bitterness, with which this contest is carried on, may be discovered in those party divisions, by which the German youth, in schools and universities, are disunited in a way which is certainly much to be regretted. Under these circumstances, an impartial, and dispassionate estimate of the character of the system and practice of tourneying, is the more desirable, as, from the extent to which it has been carried, and the zeal with which it is promoted, we cannot expect that it will merely flourish for a time, and then die away without leaving any of its traces behind.

All the manifold reproaches against tourneying, may be well reduced to three general heads : they are directed either against the *art* itself, as such ; or against the *spirit* which it excites in youth ; or against the *object* proposed by its institutors. It therefore seems advisable, if we will sift the matter thoroughly, to consider it under this threefold point of view.

*The Art of Tourneying.*—To instruct youth, formally and regularly, in corporal exercises, with a view to the improvement of strength, and the attainment of bodily dexterity, has

been frequently recommended during the last thirty years, and, here and there, practised with success in certain schools and even armies. The writings of Gutsmuths and Vieth†, which treat in detail and systematically of this subject, under the old name of Gymnastics, and the more usual one of bodily exercises, have been long held in merited esteem by the friends of youth and private teachers. It was, however, to be regretted, that their well-meant proposals had no where been put in practice generally, or on a large scale.‡ It was reserved for Mr. Jahn, to give this well known object, together with a new name, a new and more powerful impulse. Gymnastics and tourneying are, therefore, originally one and the same.

But whatever may be the name, it is the nature and spirit of the thing that constitute the important point for our inquiry. The institution, considered of itself, and stripped of all unnecessary accessories, is surely wholly irreproachable ; or rather it is highly to be commended. Who, indeed, could reasonably object to see those games and exercises, to which healthy boys have a natural inclination, subjected to a judicious superintendence and direction, for the sake of introducing amongst them that order and regularity, which are so necessary as examples to youth ;—and, also, for the purpose of more duly directing them to the desirable objects of strengthening and forming the growing bodies, animating the juvenile minds of the pupils, and inspiring them betimes with courage, resolution, coolness, and self-confidence ? The art of tourneying professes, and is adapted, to give to the animal frame, energy, strength, dexterity, and flexibility, and thus to prepare for the soul itself, a healthy and fully appropriate habitation. It is also naturally well calculated to remove the great and injurious contrast which has hitherto existed in education, between the austerity of study, and the excessive licence of play :—

\* All these schools in Prussia have been lately closed by order of the government ; but with the declared intention of placing gymnastic exercises under regulations that shall accommodate them to the general system of education.

† J. Ch. F. Gutsmuths *Gymnastics for Youth* 1793, and G. N. A. Vieth, *Essay towards an Encyclopedia of bodily Exercises*. Two parts, 1794—95.

‡ Except Denmark.

advantage may easily be taken of it to effect this, by placing the hardihood, life, and action of youth, in the very moments when their animal spirits are most highly excited, under the limits, and in the light, of a cheerful, but regulated occupation.

The only question therefore is ;—Does the art of tourneying really produce all the good which it professes, or is competent to realize? On this point it is proper first to hear the adverse party.

They maintain, that the exercises are partly injurious, in themselves, to the body and health ;—partly, as selected, too hazardous ;—and partly superfluous. Professor Wadzeck, in Berlin, has enumerated a whole host of diseases and bodily injuries, to which the human body is exposed, he says, by tourneying ; and parents and guardians who read this terrible lamentation, must be filled with horror at what is, apparently, the most pernicious of all innovations. Happily no physician has yet declared against it, and the report made, after a careful inquiry, instituted at the instance of authority, by Dr. Von Könen, chief of the Medical Board in Prussia, must have greatly diminished the apprehensions entertained ; and would probably have done so still more effectually, had this report been more ample in medical arguments and observations, and more moderate in its commendations. It ought, in candour, to be admitted, that the exercises at these institutions are, for the most part, so extremely well contrived ; the preparations so simple, and complete ; the progression so gradual ; the precautions so strict ; and the superintendence so careful,—that little is left to be wished for, on this head. We do not mean however to say, that all the exercises are equally necessary or useful ; and we are inclined to suggest, that those should be banished from the practical system, which have too much likeness to the feats of tumblers and rope dancers.

The art of tourneying is reproached, further, with taking up the time of the boys ; with so relaxing the body, that they are incapable of mental exertion ; and with too much dividing their attention. It is, however, evident, that this blame can only affect a faulty excess. If the exercises are in themselves good, it will not be dif-

ficult to find their just measure. Only it might not be advisable to leave it to the tourney masters to determine this ; for those who exclusively practice and teach any one art, are but too apt to consider it as the chief business of life.

The exercises in the tourney schools are farther stated, by some, to be injurious to the bodily carriage of youth. This reproach must be the more unexpected, since the art of tourneying, which gives to the limbs general strength and flexibility, ought naturally to lead to that unrestrained ease, those pleasing transitions, and that graceful harmony of the motions, which form what we usually mean by a good or fine carriage, or address. Yet it cannot be denied, that most tourneyers have in their gait, attitudes, and motions, something unpleasant, inelegant, and disagreeably rough ; nay, they even frequently show in their countenances, a sternness unsuitable to youth, and an expression of surliness unprepossessing at any age. The advocates of the art are so far from denying this, that they justify, and try to defend it. Dr. Jahn says, "elegance is least of all to be recommended in an effeminate age." Dr. Papow says expressly, "it is true that the tourneyer every where presents himself with a peculiar energy and decision, of which the *petit maitre*, trained by French dancing masters, knows nothing. An excess of this is very conceivable ; but, as it is impossible to begin with the perfect measure, it is better that the excess should incline to this side, rather than to that of the insipid and smooth easiness, the empty and unmeaning pliancy, which become Frenchmen better than Germans." Formerly, youth were intrusted to the dancing master to learn address and good carriage ; and Mr. Jahn himself confesses, that both may be promoted by dancing ; but he seems to have made this concession, merely to attack, with greater asperity, the usual modern dances, which he calls "destroyers of health, corrupters of morals, and temptations to sin." But, if the dances now in fashion cannot be defended, even as forming the body to a graceful carriage, this is by no means a condemnation of the art itself. It is to be considered, on the contrary, as an essential and indispensable part of the

exercises of the body. We do not mean the mere skill which shall enable a person to keep part in a ball; but the art of expressive and agreeable motion, and of the harmonious and appropriate use of the limbs. To think of banishing this genuine art of dancing from gymnastics, or to place it below other bodily exercises, would show a great degree of partiality, and of downright inconsistency.

The last reproach made to the gymnastic exercises is, that they are practised with too little regard to the future destination of the individual boys, and youths.

This reproach, too, however well founded it may be, does not affect the art of tourneying in itself, but only its present imperfect state. The most careful attention ought certainly to be paid, in the education of each child, to his, or her, particular qualities, disposition, ability, health,—and also rank, and probable future condition of life. This, it must be confessed, is at present very imperfectly done in the tourney schools; and, as it seems the neglect is intentional, some observations on this subject seem called for.

For a long series of centuries, there have existed among the German nations, certain great differences of ranks, found in the peculiarities of their original relations; confirmed by long usage and sacred covenants;—and surely it cannot be denied, that, for these nine centuries, these same nations have taken an honourable share in the progress of European civilization. Now, it is in these differences of ranks that we must seek the roots of their political constitution and civil rights. Far from being “rents,” or “wounds,” in their social relations (as Dr. Papow calls them) they are to be considered as their very nerves and sinews. On these diversities of station and vocation, reposes their domestic economy, and with it the comfortable and contented existence of individuals. To honour these relations, handed down by our fathers as a valuable inheritance; to recognise in them the essence of genuine nationality and true freedom; to adorn them with every virtue; to bequeath them as a sacred trust to our

posterity; and, therefore, not only to inspire our children with due veneration for them, but also diligently to guide them, betimes, each to the particular rank and vocation to which birth, the determination of his parents, and, in rare cases, his own choice, have destined him,—and to educate him to industry and contentedness in his ordained lot—this is the duty, and the glory of every German.

Husbandmen, soldiers, and priests,\* are the ancient, primæval elements of our nation; which since, in the course of ages, rural and city economy have been separated, now continue to subsist in the form of farmers, citizens, nobles, and clergy. These are four clearly distinct classes, with quite peculiar occupations and objects. All four are equally respectable and indispensable: each requires the whole man, with undivided exertion;—and for each, he who is to follow it, must be formed with persevering earnestness, and early care. The schools for each class have, therefore, been hitherto justly regulated each upon a plan peculiar to itself, and different from the others. If tourneying is to be added to the means of forming youth, and, for that reason to be connected with the other branches of education, it must submit to assume, in the separate schools of the different classes, a distinct and appropriate form.

That this has not yet been done, is the chief imperfection of the art of tourneying as it is now practised. We observed before, that all the exercises are not equally necessary and useful; and to this we may now add, that they cannot be equally applied to all young persons without distinction. Thus, to mention one instance, all exercises which require a violent exertion of the hand, are not to be recommended to those whose future professions demand a particularly firm, steady, pliant, and supple state of this organ—such as painters, engravers, surgeons, musicians. Many similar objections may doubtless be made in other cases.

The mental qualities which may be acquired, or rather formed, by gymnastic exercises, are, without

\* Nähr-Wehr-Lehrstand, i. e. literally, classes of supporters (providers,) defenders, and teachers.

doubt, resolution, coolness, perseverance, and that courage which arises from acquaintance with danger, and the tried consciousness of ability to encounter it. These are admirable properties, becoming man in every situation of life, and without which there can be no independence, no confidence, or durable security of mind. The sooner we discover the traces of them in the boy, the more reason have we to rejoice, and generally do so. Nay, even if we sometimes see youthful courage overleap its bounds, cheerfully exert its energy in some hazardous feat, or contend with danger in sport, we cannot help feeling a secret pleasure, and willingly trust to the invisible protection of that guardian angel, which, according to a sacred assurance, shall be withheld from none of these little ones. It is therefore very conceivable, why so many of the more judicious schoolmasters, are such zealous advocates of gymnastic exercises. Knowing the wants and inclinations of youth, and feeling perhaps in themselves the disadvantage of not having enjoyed an early developement of their bodily powers, they warmly take up the art offered them, especially when they think they have found in it a general auxiliary to promote their own views of education.

We must observe, however, that the masters of the art are not content with commending the good which may be confidently affirmed of it; in their enthusiasm they extol its value, and promise themselves, and the world, results, which we shall hardly ever, we fear, see realised: in short, they represent it as a new means of education, from which we may expect the reformation or regeneration of the people.—Here, however, it becomes necessary to remind these sanguine persons, that we Christians have, in the duties taught us, both a fixed immoveable goal for our exertions, and a sure way to attain it;—and that we have in our faith, one only firm support in our career, and an urgent encouragement to perseverance. All proposals and attempts to substitute anything human for this divine aid to education, must therefore be regarded as uncertain and untenable, however dazzling the first results may appear;—and, though we can-

not but recognise in them a generous longing for what is good and right, yet, at the same time, they are but discouraging testimonies of an unhappy aberration from God, and of a lamentable want of esteem for our holy religion.—If we admit this standard, the great hopes must be moderated, which tourneying assumes in the mouths of its advocates. It cannot of itself communicate or implant a virtuous disposition; but, as we have said, a sensible teacher may avail himself of it, as of so many other means, to promote the objects of education.

Hitherto we have gone on the supposition, that the spirit and disposition, intended to be inculcated in the tourneying schools, are praiseworthy and unexceptionable. But it is the more necessary to examine this point carefully, since the most considerable adversaries of the art of tourneying direct their main attacks against this side. It is but just, first to hear what the tourney masters themselves say, and try to learn from them what is the disposition which it is their real object to excite in youth.

The fourth section of Jahn's German Gymnastics, which describes the manner of practising and promoting the exercises, and contains the *laws of tourneying* which he proposes, will give us the best insight into this. Having found, as we have observed, that the practice of tourneying was productive of a spirit of union, perseverance, and self-denial, he conceived expectations of still greater advantages, and undertook, by means of bodily exercises, to implant in youth all the moral virtues and perfections which he wished them to acquire! All the regulations he adopted are calculated for this end, as he has often repeated with his own peculiar precision and energy. The virtues to which youth are to be particularly led in the tourney schools, are activity in promoting common purposes, perseverance, emulation, independence, obedience, sobriety, temperance, simplicity, seriousness of deportment, chastity. It may be stated generally, as the object of these institutions to inculcate a strict reverence of the moral law, a love of honour, genuine German sentiments, love for the prince and the country, aversion

from every thing foreign, and, lastly, boundless devotion to the welfare of the community of *tourneyers* in general.

With the exception of the two last gifts, against which so many voices have been raised, the whole appears, at first sight, to form a very full assemblage of good qualities. But it will be proper to be assured, first, that the virtues here enumerated are the genuine virtues, usually understood under the names here given to them; and then it will be necessary to inquire whether other virtues are not omitted, which ought to have been included in the list, and without which, all those which are included, must lose much of their value and lustre.

We have already said, that, to form the mind to Christian piety or devotion, is the only safe basis of all education. Only he who has learned to believe, that the whole activity of human life ought to be a continued fulfilment of the divine will, and who is content to expect, from the divine assistance alone, sufficient strength for his exertions, and a blessing on them;—only he can be launched with confidence into the career of life:—for he only is armed against the seductions of ambition, vanity, self-love, and self-interest. All real virtue, whatever name it may bear, flows from this one true source; and every other motive, however powerful or brilliant, is uncertain and defective.

If we examine the authors we have already quoted, we shall find that the tendency of their systems is different, nay, opposed to this. In the list of virtues above-mentioned, we miss one, which stamps a value on all other perfections, and without which they must be considered as splendid illusions,—namely, *humility*. Instead of this, Mr. Jahn speaks of a general moral law. Of what nature this morality is, may be learned from the presumptuous order, that the *tourneyer* shall strive to become a “*pattern, example, and model* ;” whereas genuine christianity, in direct opposition to such presumption, commands us humbly to follow him who alone deserves to be called “*a pattern, example, and model*.”

Mr. Papow speaks more plainly:—he thinks religion is not for children; nay, from the subordinate part which the religious education of

youth evidently appears destined to act, in the plan of a general popular education formed on the art of *tourneying*, we might be almost tempted to apprehend, that it was intended, in the end, to place it quite in the shade, and dispense with it altogether. In its room, two temporal means are proposed, which Mr. Papow calls *universality* and *publicity*, but which, called by their true names, are *habit* and *ambition*. As a proof that, in a system originally founded in false principles, the inherent defects become more and more glaring, we find Mr. Papow much harsher and more dogmatical in his expressions than Mr. Jahn; and, in fact, the whole tendency of his work is to inspire youth (that is those who frequent the *tourney* schools), with a high opinion of themselves, and contempt for every thing cast in a different mould: to undervalue all that has gone before them, and particularly the age immediately preceding, as “*a miserable decrepid existence*.” On the other hand, they themselves are represented, as the “*purest of their times*, from whose aid alone, the regeneration of the people, the reformation and cure of the sickly species can be expected.” Is there not reason to entertain the most serious apprehensions, when we reflect that thousands of young men, of all classes of society, trained in this spirit, are annually launched into the career of civil life.

Let us say a word as to the hatred inculcated against foreigners, and foreign things. This new system, arising at the time when Germany was groaning under the oppression of the French, and originating in the wish to put an end to this oppression, it was thought necessary, above all things, to excite hatred against the oppressors. But time and circumstances having changed, the original motives to this hatred have been weakened, or wholly removed, and it can now only show itself in contempt of their language, literature, manners, institutions, customs, and fashions. We most readily admit, that, to despise the institutions, &c. of our own country, and affectedly to imitate and extol foreign peculiarities, are unworthy littlenesses;—that a respect for the manners and institutions of our native land, and

a constant endeavour to promote its welfare, are highly estimable virtues; but to condemn all that is foreign, merely because it is foreign, is absurd and childish. In the present instance, we see neither the possibility of attaining the end proposed, nor the advantage that could be expected were its attainment possible.

Respecting the last point on which we have to touch, in the course of this consideration of the spirit of the new system, we allow that teachers and masters may naturally and justly require from their pupils entire confidence; but if they make themselves exclusive masters of this confidence, and seek to withdraw it from those who have also well-founded claims to it, they cannot escape merited censure. This censure the tourney masters have really brought down on themselves: and it cannot be denied, that they have given their opponents just reasons for it, by the much blamed seventh law of tourney. This law is as follows:—"Whatever tourneyer shall learn any thing that friend or enemy shall speak, write, or do, for or against the art of tourneying, must immediately give information of it, that such may be properly noticed, in due time and place." But as Mr. Jahn, induced by general disapprobation, has lately revoked this law publicly, it can now only be spoken of as a remarkable deviation from the right path. Whether this revocation has removed all the apprehensions of secret and extensive political plans, we cannot take upon ourselves to say.

An important question remains—What has experience already shown respecting the results of the new system of education? The assertions of friends and enemies are here, of

course, in direct contradiction, and both parties appeal to facts. In alluding to this point of contest, we shall take no direct notice of the scenes that have taken place at Halle, Giesson, Göttingen, and other universities; nor even of the celebrated fête on the Wartburg: It cannot however be denied, that a spirit of presumption, self-sufficiency, disregard for others, and rudeness, have increased, in a great degree, in the youth of the present day:—but, on the other hand, truth requires us to acknowledge, that seriousness, application, temperance, and, above all, chastity, have also much increased. That a great share in producing this improvement—particularly in the latter point—is to be ascribed to the tourneyers, is even allowed by their most determined opponents. The regulations of that union in the universities, which has become so well known under the name of *Burschenschaft*, to which most of the tourneyers belong, are said to be laudably calculated to promote the moral improvement of the youths;—and it seems that vices now disappear, against which all discipline has hitherto failed. Gaming, drinking, quarrelling, and uncleanness, are succeeded by the opposite virtues. How glorious, if, to so noble a direction of the will, were added humility and modesty! And what a noble task would it be for those, to whom the ears and hearts of youth are open, to lead back the mighty spirit which they have conjured up, into those bounds, within which alone it can exercise a satisfactory, and happy influence; and thus combine the generous freedom which they have awakened, with true and rational obedience.

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### ON THE DRAMATIC ART, AS INFLUENCED BY THE PRESENT PRACTICE OF THE THEATRE.

*From a Foreign Contributor.*

PUBLIC pleasures, as well as private ones, may destroy themselves by excess; and perhaps we are not now far from the time when *scenic representation* will destroy the art of the theatre.

At the epoch when Corneille ap-

peared, the art of representation was as little known as the dramatic art; and, even after this, in the time of Racine, the theatres, or rather the booths of the Marais and the hotel de Bourgogne, were as far from resembling the modern *salles de spectacles*,

as the cart in which Thespis carried about his rude pieces and his actors with daubed faces. The fact is, the old fathers of our tragedy thought less of making scenic works than literary ones: they wrote for the closet and men of taste, rather than for the stage and the multitude; and it is remarkable enough, that in the dissertations, inquiries, and prefaces, which precede their tragedies, we do not find one word about the performance of their plays; they do not utter a syllable, good or bad, about the actors, nor even about the actresses.

Voltaire made a revolution in this respect: he desired rather to be represented than read; and he even openly professed the maxim of striking strongly for the multitude, rather than justly for the enlightened. He introduced into his pieces an unusual quantity of machinery and bustle; and sometimes he put before the eyes of the spectator, actions which public morality,—according in this respect with the precepts of the masters of the art,—demands to be kept in the back ground. This author even changed the acceptation of the expression theatrical passions, which with Corneille, as with Aristotle, signified the most legitimate affections of the mind: \* according to Voltaire, it comprehends only the most violent and extravagant movements of the heart:—such as require, in order to give them full effect on the stage, that the performer should have, to use this writer's own expression, *the very devil in him!*—Voltaire formed the actors for his pieces, † as the age had formed Voltaire for its manners; and it may be doubted whether his plays would have been so successful, if he had not been better served by the performers than his illustrious predecessors were. We learn from La Harpe, that his *Mahomet*, neglected by the audience at first, owed its signal success, ten years afterwards, solely to the prodigious

talents of the person who undertook its principal part, for the purpose of revealing to the public the secret of its merit.

Voltaire was the first to present the actors to the public; he interposed them as it were between the author and the spectator. He printed at the head of his tragedies, sundry gallant verses addressed to the actresses, in which he praised their fine eyes;—and he complimented the actors, not only on their talents, but also on their virtues. In this way he interested them in his success, and still more by treating with contempt the laws of society that stigmatize, to a certain extent, the theatrical profession. The doctrine now was, that the theatre was the principal school of morality, and the actors, of course, the chief ministers of morals. It naturally followed that much importance would be attached to treating with fidelity all the accessories of the representation, such as edifices, furniture, arms, and dresses. The decorator, the machinist, the painter, and even the tailor, became agents, as much concerned as the actors, in the fate of a dramatic work; and it has doubtless often happened, that the applauses given to the getting up of a piece have been confounded and identified with those bestowed on the piece itself. The example given by Voltaire became contagious, because it is easier to construct a tragedy by means of perspective and costumes, than by the sole aid of poetry; and because the people of the theatre find it shorter work to mount ten machines than to trace one character. The theatre, besides, was now become a public institution; a matter of the first necessity, like food. It had been put under the protection of authority; and individuals, whose birth and offices brought them near the person of their sovereign, had been appointed to its supreme direction; in short, the public pleasures were ad-

\* Another French critic on the theatre, and the dramatic art, the famous Geoffroy, who for fifteen years presided over this department of the *Journal des Debats*, and by the poignancy, industry, regularity, and solidity of his criticisms, very much increased its sale and reputation, observes, “le vrai genre heroique n’a point le funeste inconvenient de desorganiser les esprits, et de causer a l’imagination une espece de fièvre: l’admiration ne fait couler que des larmes aussi glorieuses que douces; ce sentiment élève l’âme au lieu de la troubler.”

† This is surely better than forming pieces for the actors, as authors do now in certain countries.

ministered with as much gravity as the public safety and public duties.

The question however still remains to be answered, has the dramatic art gained by all this? It ought to be observed, that nothing exhausts itself and wears out sooner than the pleasure which the eye experiences at the theatre. A man of sense will read over and over again certain favourite plays, which already he knows by heart, but hardly will he be induced to go three times to see the same piece performed by the same actors. Nor am I even sure that the finest dramatic works (speaking only of tragedies) do not for a man of taste lose more than they gain by representation. The copy is always inferior to the model which exists in the imagination; and when one sees heroes so great in history or in fable,—and heroines of such untouched dignity, unequalled beauty, and unsullied modesty,—personated by clumsy and stupid fellows, and by ladies who not unrequently lack in modesty more than they excel in charms, it is difficult to repress certain ludicrous feelings of contrast and unsuitableness, which are a death blow to the sublime and pathetic.

Besides, spectacles, being in these times extremely multiplied, and followed by all classes, demand a daily aliment proportioned, both in quantity and quality, to the tastes and sensations of the body of the people. The actors, being purveyors in chief for the public pleasures, are become the natural judges of those who furnish the supplies; and, as supreme arbiters, they accept or reject according as it may seem advantageous to their own interests, that is to say, agreeably to the prevailing fashion. Novelty—perpetual novelty, being at once a stimulant and appeaser of jaded appetite, must he had; and this insatiable demand, thus pushed to the last excess, will no longer permit either waiting for the slow but rich fruits of talent, or refusing the raw and poor productions of dullness and inexperience. From the history of the human heart we are fallen to the dreams of romance; from the sublime to the wonderful; from the original to the fantastic; from the remarkable to the extravagant. Thus art decays; and it decays still more rapidly if it should happen that

changes in the laws, manners, and creeds, have rendered a generation total strangers to the ideas and feelings of those who have preceded them.

What man of taste can read without grief the following observations, that lately appeared in a French Journal, on *Athalie*, a work that constitutes the finest and most incontestable title of the literary glory of France?—

“We can no longer (says the Editor) sympathize with the sentiments and opinions that predominate in this tragedy. The merit of Racine only appears the greater in consequence of his having known so well how to appreciate these; but in proportion as he has completely succeeded, his work becomes the *more admirable*, and to us, in these days, *less touching*. *Athalie* is more completely in the manners of the Jews than *Phedre* in those of the Greeks; but it is more foreign to our manners, and to our opinions, than even the tragedies of Sophocles and Euripides. It is not however Voltaire's jokes that have most hurt the effect of this piece. Approaching as it does to the Greek tragedy in its choruses, and estranging itself still more from us by its spirit, it ought, perhaps, like the finest works of the ancient masters, to be consigned to the closet, where it would be always admired by connoisseurs, but no longer face at the theatre a public whose way of thinking is so very different.”

It appears, then, by what our enlightened critic says, that this most sublime production of poetical and religious genius cannot properly be permitted to show itself, in the 19th century, on the stage of the theatre that considers itself the first of the civilized world! And this then is the last and greatest achievement of the progress of modern philosophy! This is the grateful result of the encouragements of every sort now lavished on letters and fine arts! This is the precious fruit of academies, athe-neums, theatres of study, and courses of literature! The *Polyeucte* of Corneille, by parity of reasoning, cannot longer sustain itself on the stage! *Zaire* even, must henceforward appear ridiculous in those parts, that have heretofore been regarded as the most noble and pathetic:—nothing now can be left to it but the fury of Orosmanes, and thus Voltaire reaps as poet what he has sown as philosopher! The three master-pieces of French tragedy must seek, in the

gloom of our closets, a shelter from the public neglect or contempt, which they dare not brave at the theatre! Morality probably would not have to deplore the fall of the spectacles, which have inflicted a deep wound on the public manners of Europe, and which a people ought to deny to itself, if it wish to arise to a high degree of perfection; for a taste for pleasures renders nations childish, as well as individuals. But, in rejoicing over the effect, we may mourn over the cause; and if the influence of the *genius of Christianity*, on even the literary progress of a people, had need of any other demonstration than it has lately found, in the developement and personal example of a writer who honours his country and his friends, it might be discovered in the reflections I have just cited;—in which are clearly exemplified, how the degeneracy of taste follows the ruin of religious sentiment, and barbarism recommences with the spirit of unbelief. Other, and consequent changes in the morals and manners of the French nation, must soon render its finest comedies equally unintelligible, and thus, without being guilty of a pun, it may be said that the theatre falls, *piece by piece*.

In the end we are likely to be reduced to the Fairy Tales, the Opera, and the Melo-drama. The art of representation, which already occupies the chief place at the theatre, menaces to monopolize it entirely. Per-

haps it may be ultimately thought, that the actors are only losing their time by speaking at all, and that there is too little of spectacle in the theatre while any thing else is left there. A public, become deaf to the beauties of poetry, has no need but for dumb play; and the pantomime, which constituted the favourite pleasure of the last Romans, is likely to possess without a rival the privilege of amusing our indolence. Nay, who knows whether, in these days of mechanical dexterity, actors may not be found who will be sure to play without fault—that is to say, if, *like our repeaters*, they are regularly wound up. Every thing induces us to think that we border upon this happy invention; and, among other proofs, may be mentioned the care our authors take, to relieve the performers from the exercise of their intelligence, by noting in the margin of their pieces, with most minute exactitude, the places where they ought to rise up and sit down; when they ought to appear calm and when agitated; in what manner they ought to vary the inflection of their voices, the attitudes of their bodies, and even the expressions of their countenances. Once arrived to this sublime point of attainment, it will be easy for us to measure the degree of our literary perfection, by reference to the two extreme points of the oracle—viz. *Athalie* and the *puppet show*!

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#### LINES WRITTEN ON NEW YEAR'S DAY, 1820.

ANOTHER year is pass'd away,  
Blithe sounds I hear, gay forms I see;  
To some this is a joyful day—  
It brings no joy to me.

Whilst others hope that future years  
May be unclouded as the last;  
I dread the future, and with tears  
Look back upon the past.

To them the dawning year may give  
A scene of joy, a time of rest,  
Whilst all for whom they wish to live,  
Are living, and are blest.

But I possess no cheering thought  
Of present or of future bliss;  
The former year that sorrow brought  
Which casts a gloom on this.

The jocund sports which Christmas brings,  
When music, mirth, and dance combine,  
Must all be melancholy things  
To hearts depress'd like mine.

They call to mind the festive scene,  
The pleasures of a happy year:  
They tell us too what might have been,  
Had one we loved been here.

Alas! it was not always thus,  
These sports we were not wont to dread;  
All seasons now are sad to us,  
Our thoughts are with the dead.

And when around us we remark  
The gaudy dress, the gay pursuit,  
Our mournful garb appears more dark,  
Our sorrows more acute.

N. T. H. B.

## ON THE ORACLES OF THE ANCIENTS.\*

MR. CLAVIER, an esteemed author and magistrate in France, had employed himself in making very extensive investigations into the history of the earliest periods of European civilization. The course of these led him to an examination of facts relative to the ancient oracles, and onward, from thence, to the different sorts of divination connected with them. Prematurely removed by death, and previously interrupted in his literary labours by political duties, the public has only received, as the fruit of Mr. Clavier's studies, a first paper on the Oracles. The historical and philosophical interest of this composition, and the powerful erudition manifested in so short a work, sufficiently prove how much science and literature have lost by the death of this respectable writer.

The smiling and poetical cast of the pagan worship, which had its chief source and seat in early Greece, has been an almost constant theme of observation and eulogy: perhaps, however, the chief cause of its fascinating power, and the principle of its immortality in the imagination, where it reigns to this day, and ever will reign, until taste and feeling perish altogether, has not been so amply attended to. It consists in this—that the means and forms of its illusions are the *most natural* of any that can be presented to the minds of men. It is this quality that has given it so ready and direct an access to the heart:—it is this that has for ever connected its celebration with the love of external nature. Throughout a course of ages, and in spite of the revolutions of knowledge, it has thus identified its names and creations with the sublimest and most beautiful of those natural phenomena which strike upon our wondering senses, and that make an honour of our existence, notwithstanding all its pains and frailties, which are more than compensated by the enviable consciousness of the magnificent order of the universe.

Man, by natural instinct, is tempted to trace to the direction of a di-

vinity whatever is incomprehensible to his ignorance; and yet there are philosophers who consider his whole being to consist in his bodily senses. To which of them, we would ask, is this promptitude to employ the interposition of a God, and the determined anticipation of an existence beyond the tomb, to be attributed? We are always ready to suppose a first cause, when secondary causes escape our inquiry; and how many natural phenomena, which modern science has explained, bore for the ancients the character of spontaneousness, or of divinity! The wild irregular noises and motions, caused by the caprice of winds, and currents of water, in the subterraneous channels of the earth, constituted the first revelations of Greece. Facts that now transpire, as the result of modern investigation, let us curiously into the secrets of ancient superstition. One of the most interesting examples of this, is furnished by a late discovery made by Humboldt: he found that, amongst the immense granite masses of the Andes, the people of the country were accustomed to hear sounds, as the first rays of morning struck on the rocks, rising, and spreading, and dying-off far within the stony depth. Detached fragments emitted the same sort of music; which is accounted for by the action of the heat on the air contained in the interior crevices of the granite:—and thus the beautiful fable, connected with the colossal head of Memnon, is explained, and at the same time agreeably realized to us.

Egypt, which has been the cradle of almost all superstitions, gave birth to that of the oracle of Dodona, one of the most famous of those pretendedly supernatural manifestations that consist in taking advantage of the qualities and effects of nature. Transported from Thessaly to Epirus, this oracle, of which Homer and the most ancient Greek poets have spoken, was formed at first of an image and an altar, or sacred seat, consecrated to Jupiter, and placed at the foot of a majestic oak, imposing by its size, and venerable for its appearance of antiquity.

\* *Memoire sur les Oracles des Anciens; par feu M. Clavier. 1 vol. 8vo. pp. 176. Paris, 1818.*

As the wind stirred its thick foliage, and in the variety of its gusts produced murmurs in various keys, the priests, who were afterwards changed for priestesses, interpreted the sounds, and replied to the demands addressed to them by the worshippers. Sometimes human voices were heard from the midst of the impenetrable thicket. Herodotus chooses to tell us, that a dove, come from Thebes into Egypt, had in old times perched upon an oak, from whence a voice was heard ordering that a temple should be erected on the spot thus indicated. It happens that the Greek word, which, in the dialect of that country, signifies *doves*, means also *old women* (*peleiades*); and this circumstance induced the appointment of priestesses. Credulity soon extended the privilege of speech from the first oak to all those of the forest; and even the wood, which was taken from hence to construct the vessels of the Argonauts, commenced a discourse one day in the midst of the sea. The slips from these oaks, planted elsewhere, preserved the same privilege, according to a tradition which Ovid has followed. This oracle was soon rich enough to boast of a most magnificent temple; and near the same spot it was reproduced in a shape somewhat different. A fountain of water, considered as sacred, sprung to light from under the roots of a vast oak, and the varying murmurs of the gushing liquid became oracles which were interpreted by an aged woman.

Mr. Clavier enters at large into the facts relative to the famous oracle of Delphi, worthy of particular attention for its celebrity. In this case, the sounds produced by a subterraneous current of air, modified and turned to account by the machinery of the tripod, formed the expression of the divine revelation. A fountain which rushed with rapidity down the steep of Mount Parnassus, was engulfed in a deep abyss, and reappeared below, where it was named the fountain of Castalia. Over the current, where it ran under ground, was a narrow cave or well, by which a stream of cold wind passed, which is understood to have had the property, probably arising from the mephitic nature of the gas, of intoxicating and rendering giddy those by whom it was breathed. Its passage

was also accompanied by a hollow murmuring sound. The goats, and the shepherds who watched them, felt the first effects of this *inspiration*; and when the imagination pictures to itself the freshness and youth of the period, the vivacity of the feelings of men in this morning of social life, and the simplicity of their conceptions, the appearance of these animals and goatherds, coming down from the sublime mountain, under the influence of this mysterious vapour, will be deemed quite sufficient to strike with awe, and induce belief in the supernatural nature of the visitation. A cabin at first, and afterwards a sanctuary in stone, formed the abode of the sacred spirit. Mr. Clavier considers that the two passages in Homer which refer to this oracle, were introduced by subsequent rhapsodists, and do not belong to the original poem. He supposes that Lycurgus must have commenced the reputation of this place, and even determined the external forms in which its worship was for so long a period conducted. This great man had met with the works of Homer in his travels, and introduced into his country the two poems, till then unknown in European Greece. In order to give additional reputation to his establishments, the legislator went to consult the spirit of the place, and the reply given to him is the most ancient of the authentic oracles we possess.—“*You enter my temple, Lycurgus, friend of Jupiter and of the inhabitants of Olympus. I am doubtful whether I ought to hail you as a god or as a man: but it seems to me, O Lycurgus, that you ought rather to be considered a divinity!*”

This immortal legislator caused his laws to receive the same sanction, and he recommended the Lacedemonians to consult the oracle on all serious public occasions. It appears, therefore, that it was its connexion with politics that formed the real source of its vast importance; the union of *church and state* had now taken place, and both priests and rulers gained by the junction. Whether the precedent, however, is to be considered as, on the whole, a happy one, we shall not here seek to determine. The power to which Sparta soon rose under such auspices, brought into great vogue the prophecies of

the Pythia; and kings and chiefs of republics hastened to consult the oracle, for the purpose of consecrating their enterprises by the divine approbation. There is reason to suspect, however, that in so acting, their faith overcame their prudence: the oracle was essentially Lacedemonian by gratitude and interest; and the secret organization of its counsels, so skilfully contrived to conduct with wisdom the affairs of the growing state of Sparta, and to impress its people with the opinions necessary to their welfare, could not, in the nature of things, be an equally safe source of admonition to the governors of rival nations. One general benefit, however, resulted from the universal disposition to ask its advice: it caused an alliance amongst the neighbouring people, which association speedily embraced all the states of Greece, under the name of the Amphyctionic League. It may be remarked also that, by favouring the spirit of colonisation, so active in independent Greece, the influence of the oracle was most salutary, and rendered a true benefit to the human race.

The treasures accumulated by the ministers of the god, enabled them, at length, to construct a magnificent temple, to aggrandize their solemnities, and to improve the mechanical contrivances for turning to full account the exhalations of gas rising from this famous cave. The artifice of the tripod was now rendered complete. This machine with three legs, as the name indicates, was disposed in a way to close entirely the mouth of the gulph. A pipe or funnel, of a serpentine shape, was directed downward, for the purpose of conveying the subterraneous vapours at pleasure into a sort of reservoir placed at the top of the tripod, which formed the seat of the priestess. A cover, partaking, if we rightly understand it, of the nature of a valve, surmounted this reservoir, and the two formed together an oblong sphere, pretty much like an egg in shape. The whole apparatus was, as may be supposed, contained in the sanctuary, which was separated from the body of the temple by a wall breast high, that kept the profane at a safe and reasonable distance. Rarely indeed was permission given

to pass this barrier; and olive branches, arranged around the tripod, formed at once an imposing ornament and a convenient screen, and added by the effect of their shade to the mystery of the revelation. The valve, mentioned above, was soon found of great use: this happy invention enabled the *managers* to economise the vapour, and reserve it for the necessary occasions. The consequence was, that the oracle, which at first could only be consulted once a year, namely, at the period of the melting of the snows of Parnassus, became public once a month, when every one was free to consult it; besides the many extraordinary receptions granted to monarchs, the ambassadors of states, and other personages of importance.

Amongst the numerous priests employed in the service of this temple, were the *Hosii*, whose duty it was to slay the goats (the ordinary victims offered to the god), observe the palpitation of their intestines, and assist the high-priest, who was entitled prophet, during the revelations of the Pythian priestess. The presence of the high-priest at the revelation was absolutely necessary, and he was officially charged with the duty of transmitting to the supplicants the reply which the oracle had given to their demands. All these priests were elected by themselves from the most distinguished families of the city. A female of advanced age, who behoved to be of a native family, and well educated, was chosen to perform the functions of the Pythia; and the number of the adorers of Apollo at length obliged the priests to have three of these unhappy women, whose duties were of a nature to ruin equally health, intellect, and integrity. When the moment was come for consulting the sacred tripod, the entrails of the animal sacrificed warranting the application, the officiating priestess prepared herself for the awful ceremony by chewing some leaves of laurel, drinking of the water of the Castalian stream, and bathing her long tresses in the sacred liquid. She then went and seated herself on the tripod, the manner of placing herself on which Mr. Clavier exactly describes, but his description we dare not follow in its nice particulars. Suffice it to say, that the priestess

was exposed to all the action of the vapour escaping through the valve; which, by the pressure of her body, she could, however, so manage, though with much distress to herself, as to force it to escape irregularly and at intervals, thus producing a variety of confused murmuring and hissing noises. These, together with the perfumes supposed to belong to the divine breath, struck the assembly with awe, and prepared their imaginations to take easily the impressions which it was wished they should receive. The Pythia herself is understood to have been accustomed to live amongst persons afflicted with convulsions and perhaps mania: this would seem to have been so ordered for the sake of giving to the character of her mind a wild, fierce, and impassioned cast; and to assist her in either feigning or feeling an access of inspired frenzy. Besides, we have already alluded to the deleterious nature of the vapour, and exposed as she was to its penetrating influence, as well as to the fatiguing exertion of repressing its expansion, a sort of delirious intoxication was the natural result:—

— Deus! ecce, Deus! &c.

“The god! the god! she cries. While thus before the gate she speaks, on a sudden her looks change, her colour comes and goes, her locks are dishevelled, her breast heaves, and her fierce heart swells with enthusiastic rage: she appears in a larger and more majestic form, her voice seems not that of a mortal, for she is inspired with the near influence of the god!”

*Æneid*, Book vi.

During the whole of the long period of the oracle's splendour, the Pythia was in the habit of returning her answers in hexameter verse, turned in the style, and worded in the dialect of Homer. When, as declining days approached, poetical inspiration failed the priestess, the secret committee of priests laboured into verse the tamer words which then issued from the tripod: but, in the time of Plutarch, the oracle, now far gone in degeneracy, expressed itself altogether in prose. The priests and the Pythias, since the glory of the god was passed away, were elected out of the poorer and least educated classes of the inhabitants, and, being

chiefly occupied with questions from vulgar quarters, and of an insignificant character, could no longer give majesty to the language of the responses.

“So fades, so languishes, grows dim, and dies,

All that this world is proud of.”

Various causes conspired together to produce this decline. The political misfortunes of Greece naturally brought with them the disrepute of all her institutions, and more particularly of her oracles, they being peculiarly liable to the jealousy and suspicions of her conquerors. But, besides this, the seeds of great moral revolutions were now striking root in the bosom of society. The cloud, at first no bigger than a man's hand, had appeared in the horizon, and, though the hollow shriek of Apollo,

— “the shrine of Delphos leaving,”

was not yet heard, the groans of his dismay, rather than thunders of his voice, now issued from the Pythian throne, tottering under the burthen of its priestess. In the midst of public idleness and luxury, the philosophers, preparing the way for Christianity, were extending the progress of scepticism. In vain did the priests and public officers endeavour to defend the reputation of the oracles: the cynics and stoics struck, without ceremony, at the impostures of the clergy and the credulity of the people. Even Cicero, rather a cautious man on such points, is found publicly stating, that the prophetic virtue of the Delphic cave had at last evaporated.\* A temporary check, however, was given to the progress of infidelity, when, under the emperors, the Christian religion threatened Paganism with total ruin. Those who believed that the safety of the Roman empire depended on the preservation of the established worship, exerted themselves to revive the faith in oracles, while at the same time it was attempted to render polytheism more reasonable, by adopting the system of Plato, who recognized one first providence, and considered the other divinities as spirits of a subordinate rank (*dæmones*), some evil and some good, but all employed to accomplish

in detail the decrees and orders of the supreme intelligence. The Christians, accustomed to give the word demon an invariably bad signification, have from this circumstance been induced to believe, not quite correctly, that the heathens themselves have avowed their oracles to be the work of devils.\* At the late period just referred to, however, the oracles came into play again more than ever, and were accompanied with more frauds than ever. All real respect for them having ceased, every baseness was practised with them and by them; and the intrigues of party, and even of literature, were sustained by oracular responses, which it was now easy to procure, fashioned according to order. Homer, Archilochus, Euripides, Diogenes, and the incredulous Cicero, have all received such homages; nay, at length, the heathen deity was enlisted in the service of Christian theology! Several oracles were got up relative to Jesus Christ, of which the following reported by Suidas, in the article Augustus, may serve as a specimen:—"a Hebrew child who reigns over the immortal gods, has commanded me to depart from, and abandon this temple, and to withdraw myself to the infernal regions. Retire then in silence from before the feet of my altars!"

Beotia was a country as fertile in superstitions, as famous for the simple credulity of its inhabitants; and it was otherwise favourable to the speculators in imposture, by furnishing numerous natural springs and caverns. The oracle of Jupiter Trophonius was placed here, and its curious history deserves particular attention. This Trophonius, whom Mr. Clavier distinguishes from an heroic personage of the same name, appears to have been one of the principal inventors of prophetic machinery: he is supposed to have been contemporary with Lycurgus. Amongst other religious foundations which are attributed to him, we find the fourth construction of the temple of Del-

phos: but the mysteries of his own cavern surpass all that has been elsewhere done to produce illusion. Revelations, both *ocular* and *auricular*, were here made to the demands of the votaries, of which Pausanias, Plutarch, Philostratus (in his life of Apollonius) have given descriptions, which Mr. Clavier criticizes, and from whence he extracts the following details as pretty certain.

Near the town of Lebadia, the entrance to this subterraneous place was seen, enclosed by walls of white marble, breast-high, and surmounted by strong copper rails. A little below, was situated the temple to Fortune, and of the good genius (Agathodæmon), used for the purpose of expiation and purification; here those who wished to go through the mysterious process of consulting the awful cave, were obliged to pass several days, performing initiatory ceremonies. It would seem that this solemn trial entered among the privileges of the higher orders of society, and that the shrewd founder took special care to keep his institution for their use. The number of sacrifices and various offerings necessary to be made previous to the ceremony, were sufficient to keep all but the affluent at a distance. The days thus past in the temple, were artfully employed by the priests in gaining information, by various methods of inquiry, as to the objects and circumstances of the votary. The omens of the entrails were consulted over and over again; and, after six sacrifices on six successive days had passed favourably, it still remained to sacrifice a ram in the ditch of the temple, the very night of the admission:—unless the signs were here also favourable, nothing could be obtained. At length, when, after restrictions and abstinings without number, the pilgrim was sufficiently purified and authorized to make his application, two youths, natives of the spot, styled Mercuries, conducted him in the night to the river Hereyna, where he was

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\* The ascertained fact, at all events, is, that up to the 17th century, the agency of demons in the oracles of the ancients was a received tenet among the Christians. Van Dale's Treatise on the Heathen Oracles, was published at Amsterdam in 1700; and its object was to prove that they were entirely the work of human imposture, and that demons had no part therein. Fontenelle has abridged and translated this work, originally written in Latin, and in this shape it has acquired great celebrity, in spite of the feeble answer to it written by Baltas, a Jesuit.

bathed and rubbed with oil; he was then consigned to the hands of two priests, by whom he was led first to the fountain called Lethe, of which he drank to cause forgetfulness of all the wordly matters that had, up to that moment, occupied him, and afterwards to the fountain Mnemosyne, the water of which was intended to strengthen his memory of what he was about to see. The next step was to show him a sacred statue, pretended to be the work of Dedalus, only discovered on such solemn occasions, and to which respectful homages were paid. The awe-struck inquirer was then clothed in a white tunic, ornamented with purple bands; on his feet were put the shoes or sandals used in the country where the cave was situated; and, thus equipped and prepared, he was led at once to the gate of the sacred enclosure. The scene now becomes busy and interesting: the entrance to the subterraneous sanctuary is described as a small horizontal hole, about sixteen inches broad, and eight inches high: into this the worshipper was directed to enter, feet foremost, lying on his belly, and with his two hands full of religious cakes, destined as an offering to Hecate, and to appease the serpents, trained, it is supposed, to appear ferocious, but in reality harmless. His legs being inserted in the hole as far as the knees, he felt himself propelled with the rapidity of lightning downward, and the rapid motion did not cease until he arrived in the theatre of the mysterious celebration, the cavern itself. It is presumed that the priests by means of machinery were able suddenly to enlarge the narrow passage, and the velocity of the movement onward may easily be accounted for. Having now reached the cavern, the votaries experienced different degrees of revelation, regulated it is probable, by the notions the priests had formed, during the initiatory process, of their respective talents and characters. Some were permitted to see future events, others only to hear their history; the devout and confiding would no doubt partake the most of the wonders of the place; while, with the sceptical and shrewd, more reserve would be practised. It is probable, however, that the priests had gained a decided influence over the minds of all who

were allowed to enter, as the power of refusal, by the interpretation of the omens, was in their hands, and as it is most likely that the two fountains, Lethe and Mnemosyne, contained some intoxicating matter. One of the interlocutors in the dialogue *de Dæmonio Socratis*, in Plutarch, recounts that he himself saw in the cave "*an immense ocean, floating islands, floods of fire, and stars that changed their places: that he heard the cries of animals, the groans of men and women, and all sorts of voices.*" He adds, what may be considered as an explanation of the chief principle of the mystery, which so far as its scenery went, only seems to have been a sublime puppet-show, that, "*after he had descended to the oracle, he was some time without well knowing whether he was asleep or awake; and that he subsequently felt as if his head opened to give passage to his soul.*" It was but rarely permitted to the worshipper to pass a second night in the cavern. On leaving it, the priests caused him to be placed on the seat of Mnemosyne, where he was questioned as to all he had seen: they were no doubt rather anxious to learn what effect their operatic scenery had made on his nerves and imagination. "When you have answered all their demands," says Pausanias, "you are consigned into the hands of persons whose duty it is to conduct you, in a state of terror, and disfigured so that your friends would not know you, back to the temple of the good genius." The initiated repassed by the same narrow hole, and was pulled feet foremost, as at his entry. After abiding some time in the temple, he recovered his reason, and even, says Pausanias, the *faculty of laughing*—in allusion to the proverb, *he has consulted the oracle of Trophonius*, applied to melancholy looking people. Addison therefore, misrepresents the fact, when he gives Pausanias as his authority for affirming, that "no man was ever observed to laugh all his life after, who had once made his entry into this cave." This ancient writer tells us, that he does not give his descriptions from hearsay, for that he had gone through the whole of it himself, as well as conversed with a number of persons who had visited the cavern.

After amply detailing all the particulars of this celebrated seat of imposture, where the art of ancient jugglery was carried to its highest pitch, Mr. Clavier adds other descriptions, all very interesting, respecting similar proceedings in various parts of Asia and Greece. What we chiefly admire in his work, is, the constant disposition shown to reduce all the facts to the utmost simplicity of statement; we are also pleased with his reluctance to make violent pictures of fraud and infamy. Without permitting himself to be imposed upon by wild theories, or a fanciful turn of thinking, he places himself in the actual circumstances of the ancient people who respected the oracles; giving to daily habits their due influence, and allowing for the medley elements of that strange composition, the human mind. It is not by any means certain, that the priests of Trophœnus even, did not, to a certain extent, share the illusion which they extended to others. They could not indeed believe visions to be really supernatural of which they were contrivers; but these contrivances they might regard as means sanctioned by the sacredness of the end. If we examine the practice of modern politics, to say nothing of religion, shall we not find much reason to believe, or at all events to hope, that the principle is not always base, in the same proportion as the action is disingenuous, crooked, or unjust. On the other hand, as to the folly of the credulous believers in oracles, can we fairly consider ourselves just as much elevated in intellect and sagacity above these ancient people, as we are removed from a participation in their creeds? Such a conclusion, it is to be feared, would not be exactly correct. The follies of the present age are those

that must naturally appear least absurd to the present generation; while posterity places the latest on a level with the earliest, and measures their respective excesses. The evil commences with the prejudices and ambition of the superior classes, and is confirmed by the ignorance and passions of the lower. The numerical list of the errors in opinion of the ancients, is probably greater than that of the mistakes which exist in the systems of these times; but the question of superiority does not rest solely on this point. A religious and moral poet says:—

— “Great God I’d rather be  
A Pagan suckled in a creed outworn,  
So might I, standing on this pleasant lea,  
Have glimpses that would make me less  
forlorn;  
Have sight of Proteus rising from the sea,  
Or hear old Triton wind his wreathed horn.”

The rude habits of our mob admit perhaps of fewer actual absurdities than were contained in the religion and national traditions of the ancients; but are our manners and attainments, on the whole, so preferable as is generally imagined, to the system of ideas, habits, recollections, and exercises, which constituted, by a sort of mutual teaching, the poetical and historical, civil and religious creeds of ancient society, and imparted life to its politics, literature, eloquence, and arts? It has been said, that, in proportion as society improves men degenerate: we do not mean to enter on this question, nor to express any decided opinion upon it: but modern vanity, exerted at the expense of the past, and in ignorance of the facts, deserves to be severely repressed, particularly as the chastisement of this feeling, would not, in general, be unaccompanied by a practical lesson as to conduct.

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#### HEREAFTER.

“The glory and the freshness of a Dream.”

*Wordsworth.*

I saw a shape of beauty in a dream,  
Gazing on me. I saw her bright eyes gleam,  
Like planets, when the waned moon is gone  
Out of the skies. We two were quite alone:  
But ’tween us there was drawn an icy bar,  
That shone and sparkled like a streaming star,

And daunted me, for all the air around  
 Was like the coldest springs. There was no sound  
 Or motion from the sight, that met my eye ;  
 Yet I sate mute, and listen'd painfully  
 To catch the faintest whisper from the form.  
 Oh ! I could have endured the wildest storm  
 Better than the bright silence of those eyes !  
 They froze my soul. At last, she seem'd to rise,  
 And, opening her white bosom, bade me come  
 Unto her heart, and dwell in that calm home  
 For ever. How I flew ! the bar was shatter'd  
 To fragments in a moment, and I scatter'd  
 The bonds that bound me, as the Hebrew tore  
 The puny cords which in his sleep he wore.  
 —I flew on, gasping, through the chilling air,  
 Which, like a winter evening, glimmer'd there ;  
 A gray and melancholy light, that seems  
 Born only for those dim, mysterious dreams,  
 That haunt the speculator's brain, and grows  
 At last to darkness, and begets repose.

I stood beside her, (there was mighty space  
 Between us, though I seem'd to touch the place  
 Whereon she was,) and she put forth her hand,  
 And with a look of most supreme command,  
 But mild as morning, took me to her heart.  
 —I fainted—died—I know not what ; the smart  
 Of Death, methought, was on me ; but she smiled,  
 Like a fond mother o'er her fainting child,  
 And I arose. I heard that beauty call  
 Upon me, with a voice so musical,  
 So deep, and calm, and touching, that had I  
 Been buried in the chambers of the earth,  
 I had awoke, and claim'd a lovelier birth.  
 I listen'd to the music of her sigh,  
 That came across me, like a summer shower  
 Freshening the waters, and I blest the power,  
 Whate'er it was, that drew me to that place,  
 And let me gaze upon so fair a face.

' Youth,'—as she spoke, I gloried ; ' you shall see  
 ' The secrets of the dead. This golden key  
 ' Opens the wide doors of yon pyramid,  
 ' Where all the goodness of the past is hid.  
 ' Wickedness sleeps : but here, beneath my reign,  
 ' There's much of happiness, and nought of pain.  
 ' What there is after, yet you may not know,  
 ' Nor may I be allow'd—nor *can* I show.  
 ' Oh ! fear me not : my heart hath lost its chill  
 ' Towards thee now, but I will love thee still.  
 ' I am not dreadful, youth ; I—stay your breath  
 ' And listen to me !—I am called "DEATH."  
 ' I am belied, and mock'd, and masqued in bones,  
 ' And hated by the bad, and, with deep groans,  
 ' Am worship'd like a dæmon, and with tears,  
 ' And all the horrid host of human fears.  
 ' Yet some, for me, will lose themselves in war,  
 ' And some in revelry, and some in crime,  
 ' And some, in youth, will court me from afar,  
 ' Striking the spirit down before its time.  
 ' I love more gentle visitings, when the good  
 ' (Aged and young, in numbers—like a flood  
 ' Majestically flowing in its course)  
 ' Come to my shadowy dwellings, without force.

' Those hide I amongst flowers, that bloom for ever,  
 ' Or lay them down by yonder pleasant river,  
 ' That wanders to the land oblivious.  
 ' Here shall you rest for ages : even by us  
 ' Time passes in his round, although his power  
 ' Is felt not here until the final hour,  
 ' When this dim land shall vanish, and the sight  
 ' Open again upon some world of light.  
 ' —Come ; thou may'st taste of purer pleasures yet,  
 ' Although thine iced limbs have lost their motion ;  
 ' And every sorrow thou wilt here forget,  
 ' (Thou hast forgot already, while I speak.)  
 ' Here lie, and round thy head the violet  
 ' Shall spring, and, in the distance, the blue ocean  
 ' Shall roll, and there the moon shall seem to break  
 ' From out the clouds, and (for I know the sights  
 ' That do delight thee,) that fair scene shall change  
 ' From time to time : and then thine eye shall range  
 ' And revel, all amongst ethereal lights,  
 ' Starring the blue skies upon moonless nights ;  
 ' And brightest colours shall gleam before thine eye,  
 ' And flowers arise, and soft shapes pass thee by ;  
 ' And perfumes shall exhale o'er thee, and here  
 ' Are songs to charm thy melancholy ear,  
 ' As dim and distant as the "cuckoo-bird,"  
 ' To whom no mate replies, or that sad tone  
 ' Of love, in deep untrodden forests heard,  
 ' That cometh from the nightingale alone.'

How fearful were the words the lady spoke.—  
 At first, her voice upon my sense had broke  
 So sudden that I started, but at last  
 It fell and fainted, and, like music past,  
 Hung in my ear—or some memorial song,  
 That will not leave us while we walk among  
 Old scenes,—although they whom we prized of yore  
 Now live or haunt those pleasant spots no more.

What further? Nothing. The fair shape was gone,  
 And I was on my couch, awake, alone.

B. C.

## THE COLLECTOR.

I will make a prief of it in my note-book.

*Merry Wives of Windsor.*

### No. II.

*A hitherto unpublished Letter from  
 Napoleon : written a few weeks before  
 his abdication in 1814.*

(Translation.)

Mr. Count Montalivert,

I am as discontented as I can be  
 with the little that is done to awaken  
 public spirit.

It is not by odes and verses that it  
 is to be animated ; but by facts, simply  
 and truly stated. This is surely  
 a thing that may very easily be com-  
 prehended. I don't want made-up  
 Parisian articles : I don't want the

public to be deceived : I want only  
 that the conduct of the enemy should  
 be put before the eyes of my people.  
 Such articles as these would be use-  
 ful, not only for Paris, but for Amiens,  
 Lille, Arras, and in short all the em-  
 pire. The minister of public worship  
 ought to demand letters on this sub-  
 ject from the bishops, canons, and  
 curates : the minister of the interior,  
 from prefects, and mayors : the mi-  
 nister of finances, from all his offi-  
 cers and clerks, who have remained  
 in the places that have been occupied

by the enemy. The administration of the post-office should require intelligence from the directors of the posts, and from the post masters: the grand judge from the imperial procureurs, justices, &c. Let these persons be told to recount what they know, and what they have seen:—it is not theatrical pictures that we want,—but letters such as these, printed the moment they are received. The towns that have been occupied by the enemy, ought to send deputies to Paris, for the purpose of declaring publicly what they have seen, and heard from others, as to the things that have passed amongst them:—writers ought to be employed to collect all they say. In general, names should not be spared. The collection of all these facts would produce rage and indignation; and cause every Frenchman to feel the necessity of rising to defend himself, rather than see his wife or daughter violated—rather than be overwhelmed with blows, pillaged, robbed, and heaped with every species of outrage.

*But I am no longer obeyed:*—you all think yourselves cleverer than I; and you thwart me incessantly, with your *buts*, your *ifs* and *fors*! In the mean time, the opportunity is almost lost. The articles I speak of should be published instantly. Let every one, without distinction, be named. Let the Prince of Wurtemberg, who has conducted himself so badly, be cited. All the masks must be raised: let the words of the sovereigns even be quoted against them. I cannot write to all my ministers: this letter ought to be considered as addressed to them in common. France would have been by this time universally in arms, but for the pusillanimity of the administration, fearful of advancing too far. The police ought to collect the letters written from various parts of the country: those written by the *bourgeois*, the old nobility, people in business, and office, &c.: all should be printed, with the names at full, and nothing should be hid from the public.

I pray God, &c. &c.

(Signed) NAPOLEON.

Troyes, 26 Feb. 1814.

*The Music of the Chinese.*—Perhaps some of our readers might like to know the opinion of the ex-emperor Napoleon on the moral influence of music. We can present them with at least his *professed* feeling on this subject; and the passage, in which it is expressed, will, we think, be deemed a curious one. When he was at Milan in 1797 (as General Buonaparte), then pushing his way onward by ceaseless activity, and an address that scorned or neglected nothing, but made of every circumstance that occurred, either an immediate means of advancement, or a provision for some future gain,—he was addressed by the Inspectors of the Conservatory of Music at Paris, with a request to use his influence, or his power, to procure for them collections of musical compositions from the Italian towns. In his answer, which is couched in the politest terms, there is the following singular paragraph:—

“De tous les Beaux Arts, la musique est celui qui a le plus d'influence sur les passions; celui que le législateur doit le plus encourager. Un morceau de musique morale, et fait de main de maître, touche inmanquablement le sentiment, et a beaucoup plus d'influence qu'un bon ouvrage de morale, qui convainc la raison sans influencer sur nos habitudes.” \*

Napoleon is opposed in this passage to Plato, Dr. Johnson, and Mr. Forsyth the Italian traveller:—but he is supported by Sir T. More, the author of *Utopia*, and by the Chinese Emperors. From the remotest periods music has been a very principal object of the attention of the Chinese monarchs. It has always been treated in China as a profound science; and they consider it essentially invested with two great powers—that of touching the heart according to all the varieties of expression, and that of delighting and relaxing the mind. In the most ancient times of China, it seems to have enjoyed the highest esteem: it was then called *the science of sciences*; the “rich source from whence all the others spring.” Yet unanimous accounts represent Chinese music as somewhat rude and

\* “Of all the Fine Arts, music is that which has the most influence on the passions, and which the legislator ought the most to encourage. A musical composition of an intellectual character, if the work of a master, never fails to touch the feelings; and it has more influence on the mind than a good moral book, which convinces our reason, but does not influence our habits.”

unmelodious to European ears: the question however is, whose ears are in the right? It is very possible that the Greek music, the effects of which on its hearers would appear to us to be either supernatural or ridiculous, might give but little satisfaction to the frequenters of the opera at London or Paris. Moreover, the Chinese repay us scorn for scorn, and are prepared with good reasons to back their contempt. The Père Amiot, in his *Memoirs on the History, Sciences, and Arts of the Chinese*, narrates, that wishing to make a trial whether refined European music would please them, he played two of Rameau's most characteristic works (*Les Sauvages* and *Les Cyclopes*). The good father was both surprised and shocked to find, that though this music had been a long time in great favour amongst his countrymen, it nevertheless made but little impression upon the Chinese. One of the auditors said on this occasion: "our melodies go from the ear to the heart, and from the heart to the mind; we feel them, we understand them; but the music which you have just played to us, we neither feel nor understand—it does not move us." The Chinese, however, were not put fairly in possession of the case here, for the music played to them was *French*; and we cannot help feeling a good deal of respect for the taste of the amateurs of Peking, judging by their decision on such evidence. Whether they would equally have complained of the coldness of Miss Stephens's singing, or of an Italian air, may be doubted; for the same Chinese further observed, "that music is the language of feeling; that all our passions have their corresponding tones and proper language; and therefore, that music, to be good, must be in accord with the passion it pretends to express."—The antiquity of the cultivation of the science of music in China is one of the several proofs of the extreme antiquity of this people. The other nations, with whose records we are at all acquainted, possessed, at corresponding epochs, both vocal and instrumental music; but scientific music, founded on the philosophy of acoustics, and supposing considerable progress in physical and mathematical knowledge, belonged only to the Chinese. This nation has its fables

as well as the Greeks; and they attributed to Linghen-Kouei, and Pin-mon-Kia, the same power over stones, beasts, and men, that Orpheus and Amphion were famed for. Kouei, who lived one thousand years before Orpheus, is said to have made use of the following remarkable words:—"When I strike harmonious chords, the beasts of the fields encompass me, leaping with joy." The transports of animals, under the influence of musical sound, will not be thought a mere invention of the fabulist, by those who have read Mr. Hogg's most interesting account of the dog, the companion guardian of his flocks, who was accustomed to join loudly and fervently in the psalm singing, at family prayers, in the house of the Scotch farmer, by whom our poet was then employed as shepherd.

Perhaps Dundee's wild warbling measures  
rise,

Or plaintive Martyr's worthy of the name,  
Or noble Elgin beats the heavenward flame.

The sweetest far of Scotia's holy lays:

whatever the tune might be, the dog took a regular part therein; and his howl realized, in one quality at least. Milton's description of "linked sweetness long drawn out."

*Lady M. W. Montagu.*—She is (says Mr. Spence), one of the most shining characters in the world, but shines like a comet; she is all irregularity and always wandering: the most wise, most imprudent; loveliest, most disagreeable; best natured, cruelest woman in the world; all things by turns, and nothing long.—She was married young, and she told me, with that freedom much travelling gives, that she was never in so great a hurry of thought, as the month before she was married: she scarce slept any one night that month. She was one of the most celebrated beauties of the day, and had a vast number of offers, and the thing that kept her awake was who to fix upon. She was determined as to two points from the first, that is, to be married to somebody, and not to be married to the man her father advised her to have. The last night of the month she determined, and in the morning left the husband, of her father's choice, buying the wedding ring,—and scuttled away to be married to Mr. Wortley.

## THE TRAVELLER.

## No. II.

## DISTANT VIEW OF MONT BLANC.

How fair was all without ! while here, within,  
 Wait grief, and silence, loneliness, and gloom :  
 The walls are watching me, as, round the room,  
 I mark the dusk its stealing progress win.

There was a beauteous spot within the sky,  
 Fairer than any cloud, or any star :  
 The sun was gone, but it shone from afar,  
 And long I watched it, with a steadfast eye.

Its splendour was not of the day, or night,  
 For from the hills came Evening, grey and cold ;  
 But still it kindled, with a flame of gold,—  
 Then suddenly grew dim—then faded quite !

It was Mont-Blanc ! that ancient, sovereign height !  
 Bearing upon its brow the old world's crown :  
 That on the sinking sun looks proudly down,  
 And by its power retains the parting light.

But darkness comes o'er it—and then I weep ;  
 For then I think of One, whose eyes could cheer,  
 When our day darkened, and our view grew drear :  
 Who gave a light,—which Death forbade to keep !

## THE LAKE OF GENEVA.

To night the wind is loud ;  
 And the lake falls harsh on the shore ;  
 And the heav'n is grey—not a star or a cloud—  
 But a low'ring mistiness hangs, like a shroud,  
 O'er my head, as I list to the roar.

Like a *shroud* o'er my head !  
 That word hath an import that told :  
 It dropt on my heart, as the fall of the dead,  
 And a thought gave a ghastly flash as it fled,  
 And the wind of the night came more cold.

I'll leave this cheerless strand—  
 'Tis dull to see wave chasing wave :  
 To watch how they rise and roll on tow'rs the land ;  
 How they curl and swell, but to break on the sand,  
 Like the hopes of my life on the grave.

I turn—yet where to go ?  
 The gloom hides the hills, though they're nigh :  
 But one tree on Salève stands alone midst the snow,  
 Full three thousand feet from the valley below,  
 And it is not more lonely than I !

## GENERAL REPORTER.

## THE DRAMA.

## No. II.

Since we wrote a former article on this subject, the stage has lost one of its principal ornaments and fairest supports, in the person of Miss O'Neill. As Miss Somerville changed her name for that of Mrs. Bunn, and still remains on the stage, so Miss O'Neill has altered hers for Mrs. Beecher, and has, we fear, quitted us for good and all. "There were two upon the house-top: one was taken, and the other was left!" Though, on our own accounts, we do not think this "a consummation devoutly to be wished," yet we cannot say we are sorry on her's. Hymen has, in this instance, with his flaming torch and saffron robe, borne a favourite actress from us, and held her fast, beyond the seas and sounding shores, "to our moist vows denied:" but, whatever complaints or repinings have been heard on the occasion, we think Miss O'Neill was in the right to do as she has done. *Fast bind, fast find*, is an old proverb, and a good one, and is no doubt applicable to both sexes, and on both sides of the water. A husband, like death, cancels all other claims, and we think, more especially, any imaginary and imperfect obligations, (with a clapt sixpence, and clap hands and a bargain) to the stage or to the town. Miss O'Neill, (for so her name may yet linger on our tongues) made good her retreat in time from the world's "slippery turns," and we are glad that she has done so. It is better to retire from the stage, when young, with fame and fortune, than to have to return to it when old (as Mrs. Crawford, Mrs. Abington, and so many others have done) in poverty, neglect, and scorn. There is no marriage for better and for worse to the public; it is but a "Mr. Limberham, or Kind Keeper," at the very best: it does not tie itself to worship its favourites, or "with its worldly goods them endow," through good report or evil report, in sickness or in health, "till death them do part." No such thing is even thought of: they must be always young, always beautiful,

and dazzling, and allowed to be so; or they are instantly discarded, and they pass from their full blown pride, and the purple light that irradiates them, into "the list of weeds, and worn-out faces." If a servant of the theatre dismisses himself without due warning, it makes a great deal of idle talk: but, on the other hand, does the theatre never dismiss one of its servants without formal notice, and is any thing then said about it? How many old favourites of the town—that many-headed abstraction, with new opinions, whims, and follies ever sprouting from its teeming brain; how many decayed veterans of the stage, do we remember, in the last ten or twenty years, laid aside "in monumental mockery;" thrown from the pinnacle of prosperity and popularity, to pine in poverty and obscurity, their names forgotten, or staring in large capitals, asking for a benefit at some minor theatre! How many of these are to be seen, walking about with shrunk shanks and tattered hose, avoiding the eye of the stranger whom they suppose to have known them in better days; straggling through the streets with faltering steps, and on some hopeless errand,—with sinking hearts, or heart-broken long ago:—engaged, dismissed again, tampered with, tantalised, trifled with, pelted, hooted, scorned, unpitied: performing quarantine at a distance from the centre of all their hopes and wishes, as if their names were a stain on their former reputations;—or perhaps received once more,—tolerated, endured out of charity, in the very places that they once adorned and gladdened by their presence!—And all this, often without any fault in themselves, any misconduct, any change, but in the taste and humour of the audience; or from their own imprudence, in not guarding (while they had an opportunity) against the ingratitude and treachery of that very public, that claims them as its property, and would make them its slaves and puppets for life—or during pleasure? We might make out

a long list of superannuated pensioners on public patronage, who have had the last grudging pittance of favour withdrawn from them, but that it could do no sort of good, and that we would not expose the names themselves to the gaze and wonder of vulgar curiosity. We are only not sorry that Miss O'Neill has put it out of the power of the Nobility, the Gentry, and her Friends in general, to add her name to the splendid, tarnished list; and that she cannot, like so many of her predecessors, be chopped and changed, and hacked, and banded about, in tragedy or in comedy, in farce or in pantomime, in dance or song, at the Surry, or the Cobourg, or the Sans Pareil Theatres; or even be sent to mingle her silvery cadences with Mr. Kean's hoarse notes at Old Drury!

Before, however, we take leave of her for ever in that capacity in which she has so often delighted, and so often astonished us, we must be excused in saying a few parting words of that excellence, which, for the future, can be known (how very imperfectly!) only by description, and be remembered only as an enchanting dream. We believe that ladies, even after the marriage-ceremony, sign their maiden names in the church-register: we hope that Miss O'Neill will not refuse to subscribe, in the same manner, to our critical jurisdiction, for the last time that we shall have to exercise it upon her.

Miss O'Neill was in size of the middle form: her complexion was fair: and her person not inelegant. She stooped somewhat in the shoulders, but not so as to destroy grace or dignity:—in moving across the stage, she dragged a little in her step, with some want of firmness and elasticity. The action of her hands and arms, however (one of the least common, and therefore, we suppose, one of the most difficult accomplishments an actor or actress has to acquire) was perfectly just, simple, and expressive. They either remained in unconscious repose by her side; or, if employed, it was to anticipate or confirm the language of the eye and tongue. There was no affectation, no unmeaning display, or awkward deficiency in her gesticulation; but her body and mind seemed to be under the guidance of the same impulse, to

move in concert, and to be moulded into unity of effect by a certain natural grace, earnestness, and good sense. The contour of her face was nearly oval; and her features approached to the regularity of the Grecian outline. The expression of them was confined either to the extremity of pain and agony, or to habitual softness and placidity, with an occasional smile of great sweetness. Her voice was deep, clear, and mellow, capable of the most forcible exertion, but, in ordinary speaking, "gentle and low, an excellent thing in woman!" She, however, owed comparatively little to physical qualifications: there was nothing in her face, voice, or person, sufficiently striking to have obtruded her into notice, or to have been a factitious substitute for other requisites. Her external advantages were merely the medium through which her internal powers displayed their refulgence, without obstruction or refraction (with the exception hereafter to be stated): they were the passive instruments, which her powerful and delicate sensibility wielded, with the utmost propriety, ease, and effect. Her excellence (unrivalled by any actress since Mrs. Siddons) consisted in truth of nature, and force of passion. Her correctness did not seem the effect of art or study, but of instinctive sympathy, of a conformity of mind and disposition to the character she was playing, as if she had unconsciously become the very person. There were no catching lights, no pointed hits, no theatrical tricks, no female arts resorted to, in her best or general style of acting: there was a singleness, an entireness, and harmony in it, that gave it a double charm as well as a double power. It rested on the centre of its own feelings. Her style of acting was smooth, round, polished, and classical, like a marble statue; self-supported, and self-involved; owing its resemblance to life, to the truth of imitation; not to startling movements, and restless contortion, but returning continually within the softened line of beauty and nature. Her manner was, in this respect, the opposite of Mr. Kean's, of whom no man can say (either in a good or in a bad sense) that he is like a marble statue, but of whom it may be said, with some appearance of truth, that he

is like a paste-board figure, the little, uncouth, disproportioned parts of which, children pull awry, twitch, and jerk about in fifty odd and unaccountable directions, to laugh at,—or like the mock-figure of Harlequin, that is stuck against the wall, and pulled in pieces, and fastened together again, with twenty idle, pantomimic, eccentric absurdities ! Or he seems to have St. Antony's fire in his veins, St. Vitus's dance in his limbs, and a devil tugging at every part:—one shrugging his shoulders, another wagging his head, another hobbling in his legs, another tapping his breast ; one straining his voice till it is ready to crack, another suddenly, and surprisingly, dropping it down into an inaudible whisper, which is made distinct and clear by the *bravos* in the pit, and the shouts of the gallery. There was not any of this paltry patch-work, these vulgar snatches at applause, these stops, and starts, and breaks, in Miss O'Neill's performance, which was sober, sedate, and free from pretence and mummery. We regret her loss the more, and fear we shall have to regret it more deeply every day. In a word, Mr. Kean's acting is like an anarchy of the passions, in which each upstart humour, or phrensy of the moment, is struggling to get violent possession of some bit or corner of his fiery soul and pigmy body—to jostle out, and lord it over, the rest of the rabble of short-lived, and furious purposes. Miss O'Neill seemed perfect mistress of her own thoughts, and if she was not indeed the rightful queen of tragedy, she had at least all the decorum, grace, and self-possession of one of the Maids of Honour waiting around its throne.—Miss O'Neill might have played, to the greatest advantage, in one of the tragedies of Sophocles, which are the perfection of the stately, elegant, and simple drama of the Greeks: we cannot conceive of Mr. Kean making a part of any such classical group. Perhaps, however, we may magnify his defects in this particular, as we have been accused of over-rating his general merits. We do not think it an easy matter “to praise him or blame him too much.” We have never heard any thing to alter the opinion we always entertained of him: he can only do it himself—by his own acting. While we owe it to him

to speak largely of his genius and his powers, we owe it to the public to protest against the eccentricities of the one, or the abuses of the other.

To return from this digression.—With all the purity and simplicity, Miss O'Neill possessed the utmost force of tragedy. Her soul was like the sea, calm, beautiful, smiling, smooth, and yielding,—but the storm of adversity lashed it into foam, laid bare its centre, or heaved its billows against the skies. She could repose on gentleness, or dissolve in tenderness, and at the same time give herself up to all the agonies of woe. She could express fond affection, pity, rage, despair, madness. She felt all these passions in their simple and undefinable elements only. She felt them as a woman,—as a mistress, as a wife, a mother, or a friend. She seemed to have the most exquisite sense of the pressure of those soft ties, that were woven round her heart, and that bound her to her place in society ; and the rending them asunder appeared to give a proportionable revulsion to her frame, and disorder to her thoughts. There was nothing in her acting of a preternatural or *ideal* cast—that could lift the mind above mortality, or might be fancied to descend from another sphere. But she gave the full, the true, and unalloyed expression, to all that is common, obvious, and heartfelt in the charities of private life, and in the conflict of female virtue and attachment with the hardest trials and intolerable griefs. She did not work herself up to the extremity of passion, by questioning with her own thoughts ; or raise herself above circumstances, by ascending the platform of imagination ; or arm herself against fate, by strengthening her will to meet it: no, she yielded to calamity, she gave herself up entire, and with entire devotion, to her unconquerable despair:—it was the tide of anguish swelling in her own breast, that overflowed to the breasts of the audience, and filled their eyes with tears, as the loud torrent projects itself from the cliff to the abyss below, and bears every thing before it in its resistless course. The source of her command over public sympathy, lay, in short, in the intense conception, and unrestrained expression, of what she, and every other woman, of natu-

ral sensibility would feel in given circumstances, in which she, and every other woman, was liable to be placed. Her Belvidera, Isabella, Mrs. Beverley, &c. were all characters of this strictly feminine class of heroines, and she played them to the life. They were made of softness and suffering. We recollect the first time we saw her in Belvidera, when the manner in which she threw herself into the arms of Jaffier, before they part, was as if her heart would have leaped out of her bosom, if she had not done so. It staggered the spectator like a blow. Again, her first meeting with Biron, in Isabella, was no less admirable and impressive. She looked at, she saw, she knew him: her surprise, her joy were painted in her face, and woke every nerve to rapture. She seemed to have perfected all that her art could do. But the sudden alteration of her look and manner, the shuddering and recoil within herself, when she recovers from her surprise, and recollects her situation, married to another,—at once on the verge of ecstasy and perdition,—baffled description, and threw all that she had before done into the shade,—“like to another morn, risen on mid noon.” We could mention many other instances, but they are still too fresh in the memory of our readers to make it necessary. It must be confessed, as perhaps the only drawback on Miss O'Neill's merit, or on the pleasure derived from seeing her, that she sometimes carried the expression of grief, or agony of mind, to a degree of physical horror that could hardly be borne. Her shrieks, in the concluding scenes of some of her parts, were like those of mandrakes, and you stopped your ears against them: her looks were of “moody madness, laughing wild, amidst severest woe,” and you turned your eyes from them; for they seemed to sear like the lightning. Her eye-balls rolled in her head: her words rattled in her throat. This was carrying reality too far. The sufferings of the body are no longer proper for dramatic exhibition when they become objects of painful attention in themselves, and are not merely indicative of what passes in the mind—comments and interpreters of the moral scene within. The effect was the more ungrateful from the very contrast (as we before hint-

ed) between this lady's form and delicate complexion, and the violent conflict into which she was thrown. She seemed like the little flower, not the knotted oak, contending with the pitiless storm. There appeared no reason why she should “mar that whiter skin of her's than snow, or monumental alabaster,” or rend and dishevel, with ruthless hand, those graceful locks, fairer than the opening day. But these were faults arising from pushing truth and nature to an excess, and we should, at present, be glad to see “the best virtues” of others make even an approach to them. Her common style of speaking had a certain mild and equable intonation, not quite free from *manner*, but in the more impassioned parts, she became proportionably natural, bold, and varied. In comedy, Miss O'Neill did not, in our judgment, excel: her *forte* was the serious. Had we never seen her play any thing but Lady Teazle, we should not have felt the regret at parting with her, which we now do, in common with every lover of genius, and of the genuine drama.

But it is high time that we should turn, from the actors we have lost, to those that still remain amongst us.—Among the novelties of the season are, of course, the two Pantomimes, which, lest we should forget them at last, we shall mention in the first place. We cannot say that we exactly relish the taking Don Quixote as the subject of a Pantomime. The knight was battered and bruised enough in his lifetime, without undergoing a gratuitous penance at this time of day. With all our good-will to Mr. Grimaldi, we have a greater affection for Sancho Panza, and do not want to see him metamorphosed into any thing but himself. Indeed we cannot spoil Don Quixote; but neither need we try to do it.—JACK AND THE BEAN STALK is the legitimate growth of the Christmas holidays, and the winter theatres. The wonders of the necromancer are equalled by the surprising arts of the mechanist. The favoured Bean Stalk grows and ascends the skies, as it did to our infant imaginations, and as if it would never have done growing; and Ogres and Ogresses become familiar to our senses, as to our early fears, in the enchanted palace of Drury-lane Theatre. Seeing

is sometimes believing. It is worth going to a good Pantomime, if it was for no other reason than to hear the children from school laugh at it, till they are ready to split their sides. What we can no longer enjoy, or wonder at ourselves, it is well to take at the rebound, in the reflection of happy faces, and in the echo of joyous mirth. These little real folks are even better than the fantastical beings, and poetic visions, we see upon the stage!

We are sorry we cannot say any thing to reverse the judgment passed upon a new comedy, called *Gallantry*, or *Adventures at Madrid*, brought out at this Theatre in the beginning of the month. It was a comedy of intrigue; and, in conformity with the idea of this style of invention, was decorated with a wearisome display of Spanish costume, and enriched with an unmeaning catalogue of enamoured Dons, and disdainful or neglected Donnas. The plot was intricate, so as to become unintelligible, mechanical, and improbable. Every contrivance "had its brother, and half the story just reflects the other." There was a strange and insurmountable coincidence of antithetical blunders and epigrammatic accidents. The author's invention seemed to run on all fours, to cut out the different compartments of his fable, like the figures in a country-dance, to answer to one another: or he made all his characters turn the tables on one another, without knowing it. Thus, if a lady sends a letter very innocently to the lover of another, her own lover writes a letter to the mistress of his imaginary rival; if an old fellow falls in love with a young lady, this turns out to be his son's intended bride; and in this manner the game of cross-purposes is easily kept up, and the plot is diversified by the rule of contraries throughout. There was little attempt at wit in this piece (what little there is, was flat and shallow, as well as gross,) and there was no attempt at interest or sentiment, except in the character of Constantia, which was well played by Mrs. West, but very ill supported by the author. Mr. Barnard was her lover; and we must say that this gentleman spoils any intrigue in which he is engaged, if it soars above a chambermaid. He plays an impu-

dent, self-sufficient valet, with good emphasis and discretion, or can get through an under-steward very well; but he cannot act the hero, or look the gentleman. There is a cast of parts, for which Mr. Barnard is really qualified; and we are unwilling to see him taken out of them, both for his sake and our own. The play was altogether ill got up: it indeed called out the strength of the house, but there was either nothing for them to do, or their parts became them as little as their dresses. Mr. Harley, for instance, who is always so lively in himself, and who so often enlivens others, was put to play a villainous grave Spanish Don, who is full of stratagem and deliberate knavery; and he popped, and wriggled, and fidgetted, on and off the stage, nodding his airy plumes, and shaking the powdered locks, in which he had been bedizened out, like the figure of Pug we have seen at Bartlemy-fair, or in Hogarth's picture of the same little chuckling favourite, in Fashion in High Life. The fault was not in Mr. Harley, who always does his best to please, but in the cut of his clothes, and the cast of his part. Russel had no business in the play. He looked like an Alguazil, not like a Madrid gallant. Instead of meddling with the Spanish cavalier, and strutting about with a feather in his hat, and a sword by his side, he should be *At Home* every night of his life, in Jerry Sneak: he is abroad in almost every other character! Munden made nothing of an amorous, superannuated, wheedling old lord: and, making nothing of the part "as it was set down for him," he tried, now and then, to thrust in a little caricature of his own, and to insinuate a bye-joke to the galleries. Munden's is not "the courtier's or the lover's melancholy;" but a quaint, fantastical, uncouth, irresistible humour of his own, and he must be strangely grouped, or disposed of, on the theatrical canvass, to lose all his effect. Munden is not a sickly, vapid, decayed innamorato, fit to make his approaches to his mistress's eyebrows, in good set terms, or with cringing manners: he is a sturdy grotesque—a wild exotic, not a faded passion-flower. He does not belong to any class, fashionable or vulgar. He is himself alone: and should

only personate those extraordinary and marked characters, that Gilray painted, and O'Keeffe drew. Dowton and Knight were pieces of supererogation in the comedy of Gallantry; and Mrs. Harlowe is only happy in those parts which are meant to be unequivocally repulsive. Miss Kelly was neatly tucked up, in a Spanish bodice and petticoat; and had to carry several messages on or off the stage, in which she succeeded. The play languished on to the end of the fifth act, and then died a natural death. The only chance which it had of escaping was from one or two dramatic situations, borrowed from well-known plays, but disfigured and deprived of their effect, that they might pass for new. One of these was, where Mrs. West, as Constantia, retires from her antiquated lover (Munden) on his knees, in the middle of a speech, profuse of sentiments and compliments, and leaves her maid, Mrs. Harlowe, to receive the reversion of his protestations: the old gallant not discovering his mistake, till he is interrupted by the entrance of company. Mrs. Edwin delivered an Epilogue with some spirit, but its appeals to the favour of the audience only bespoke repeated condemnation. After the curtain dropped, Mr. Elliston, who had performed a part in the piece, came forward to announce that it was withdrawn; but, in submitting to the pleasure of the House, he seemed disposed to dispute the soundness of their taste. He said, "It was a difficult thing to write a good comedy; perhaps a more difficult thing to judge of one." Critics as we are, we cannot make up our minds to that opinion. Or we might say in answer, "It is an easy thing to write a bad comedy; a more easy thing to judge of one."\* Be this as it may (for we do not wish to be drawn into a literary or metaphysical controversy with the present manager of Drury-lane,) we do not see what it was to the purpose. Does Mr. Elliston mean to infer, that, because it is a difficult thing to judge of a good comedy, he is a better judge than any one else, or than the great majority

of the audience, who had pronounced sentence upon this? Suppose the comedy had succeeded, as completely as it failed, and that a single individual in the pit had got up to say, that he differed from every one present, and that his uncalled-for opinion was to be put in competition with the voice of the House, would not Mr. Elliston have thought it a great piece of impertinence and presumption? Why then should he commit the same folly himself?

At Covent-garden there have been two new debutants, Mr. Nathan as Henry Bertram, in *Guy Mannering*, and Miss Wensley as *Rosalind*. The first was a decided failure. We do not know what Mr. Nathan's powers of voice or execution in a room may be: but he has evidently not the capacity of sending out a sufficient volume of articulate sound to fill a large theatre: neither is his manner of speaking, nor his action, at all fitted for the stage. Miss Wensley's *Rosalind* was well received, and has been repeated. Her face and figure are agreeable; her voice has considerable sweetness and flexibility; and her manner of performing the part itself, was arch, graceful, and lively; though this young lady (who we understand had not appeared before on any stage) was withheld from giving herself up entirely to the character, by a natural and amiable timidity. We heartily wish she may succeed, and have no fear but she will.† Miss Tree has lately made a valuable addition to the musical strength of Covent Garden. She sings delightfully in company with Miss Stephens; and in the *Comedy of Errors* almost puzzles the town, as she does *Antipholus of Syracuse*, which to prefer: *Magis pares quam similes*. She is quite different, both in quality of voice and style of execution, from our old favourite; and it is this difference that completes the charm of their singing. Her tones are as firm, deep, and mellow, as Miss Stephens's are clear and sweet. Her ear is as true as it is possible to be; and the sustained manner in which she dwells upon a note, is as delightful, as the airy fluttering grace with which

\* " 'Tis hard to say, if greater want of skill  
Appear in writing, or in judging ill." POPE.

† This young lady has since acted *Beatrice* in "*Much Ado About Nothing*," with considerable applause.

Miss Stephens varies, and sportively plays with it. The singing of the one may be compared perhaps to a continued stream of honeyed sound, while that of the other is like the tremulous bubbles that float and rise above its surface. Or Miss Tree's singing has the consistency, the lengthened tenuity or breadth of tone, drawn from a well-strung violin, as Miss Stephens's resembles the light, liquid, echoing accompaniments of the harp or lute. Of both together, it may be said, when they join their efforts in a single composition, that "all is grace above, while all is strength below." It is a treat to which of late we have been seldom accustomed.

MR. KEAN'S CORIOLANUS.—Mr. Kean's acting is not of the patrician order; he is one of the people, and what might be termed a *radical* performer. He can do all that may become a man "of our infirmity," "to relish all as sharply, passionate as we;" but he cannot play a God, or one who fancies himself a God, and who is sublime, not in the strength of his own feelings, but in his contempt for those of others, and in his imaginary superiority to them. That is, he cannot play Coriolanus so well as he plays some other characters, or as we have seen it played often. Wherever there was a struggle of feelings, a momentary ebullition of pity, or remorse, or anguish, wherever nature resumed her wonted rights, Mr. Kean was equal to himself, and superior to every one else; but the prevailing characteristics of the part are inordinate self-opinion, and haughty elevation of soul, that aspire above competition or controul, as the tall rock lifts its head above the skies, and is not bent or shattered by the storm, beautiful in its unconquered strength, terrible in its unaltered repose. Mr. Kean, instead of "keeping his state," instead of remaining fixed and immovable (for the most part) on his pedestal of pride, seemed impatient of this mock-dignity, this *still-life* assumption of superiority; burst too often from the trammels of precedent, and the *routine* of etiquette, which should have confined him; and descended into the common arena of man, to make good his pretensions by the energy with which he contended for them, and to prove the hollowness of his supposed indifference to the opinion of others by the excessive significance and

studied variations of the scorn and disgust he expressed for it. The intolerable airs and aristocratical pretensions of which he is the slave, and to which he falls a victim, did not seem *legitimate* in him, but upstart, turbulent, and vulgar. Thus his haughty answer to the mob who banish him—"I BANISH YOU"—was given with all the virulence of execration, and rage of impotent despair, as if he had to strain every nerve and faculty of soul to shake off the contamination of their hated power over him, instead of being delivered with calm, majestic self-possession, as if he remained rooted to the spot, and his least motion, word, or look, must scatter them like chaff or scum from his presence! The most effective scene was that in which he stands for the Consulship, and begs for "the most sweet voices" of the people whom he loaths; and the most ineffective was that in which he is reluctantly reconciled to, and overcome by the entreaties of, his mother. This decisive and affecting interview passed off as if nothing had happened, and was conducted with diplomatic gravity and skill. The casting of the other parts was a climax in bathos. Mr. Gattie was Menenius, the friend of Coriolanus, and Mr. Penley Tullus Aufidius, his mortal foe. Mr. Pope should have played the part. One would think there were processions and ovations enough in this play, as it was acted in John Kemble's time; but besides these, there were introduced others of the same sort, some of which were lengthened out as if they would reach all the way to the Circus; and there was a sham-fight, of melodramatic effect, in the second scene, in which Mr. Kean had like to have lost his voice. There was throughout a continual din of—

"Guns, drums, trumpets, blunderbuss, and thunder"—

or what was very like it. In the middle of an important scene, the tinkling of the stage-bell was employed to announce a flourish of trumpets—a thing which even Mr. Glossop would not hear of, whatever the act of parliament might say to enforce such a puppet-show accompaniment. There is very bad management in all this; and yet Mr. Elliston is the Manager.

## REPORT OF MUSIC.

## No. II.

THE production of a Comic Opera at the King's Theatre, one of the latest, if not the very newest of the works of Rossini, is the musical occurrence of the greatest note, since our first Report. Amused and delighted as our countrymen have frequently been, of late years, by Operas, Melodramas, and Pantomimes, drawn from our nursery stories, they will hear without much surprise, that the subject is *La Cenerentola*, or Cinderella. The incidents which serve to make out a comic Italian piece, as well as the sentiments, are so few and simple, that, to English taste, they too often seem absolutely bald and childish conceits. In the present instance, our fairy tale is stripped of all the imagery which rendered it so dear to the young fancy. A prince is commanded by his father to select a bride, at sight, from the beauties of his neighbourhood. Servants are sent to invite the damsels, while the prince, in the dress of his valet, and the valet in the habit of his master, accompany the messengers. They arrive at the castle of a Baron, who has three daughters, the youngest of whom (his step-daughter) is Cinderella, and whose treatment is that of a servant. The tutor of the prince previously comes in the garb of poverty, asks alms, and is a witness of the cruelty of the two elder sisters to the youngest. By the former he is repulsed, by the latter relieved. Cinderella is seen by the prince; explains the degree of relationship in which she stands to the family; they become mutually enamoured, while he appears as a plain esquire, and she in her working dress. She in vain persuades her father-in-law to take her to the ball. He and the two elder daughters depart, but the tutor appears, and conducts the younger, promising her fit apparel and equipage. A good deal of equivocation arises out of the characters of Magnifico the father, and Dandini the valet. The catastrophe is brought about by the selection of Cinderella, by the real prince. Such are the outlines of the transmutation which our Cinderella

has undergone, to fit her for the Italian stage. Neither story nor poetry afford interest in any other light than as vehicles for music.

The works of Rossini, who is at present the existing composer most in vogue upon the Continent, begin now to be generally known to this country. Though none of the three operas\* from his hand, which had previously been given here, have arisen to any thing like popularity, yet detached pieces, not only from these, but from his other works, have attained pretty general circulation. Thus *Zitti, Zitti*, the trio in *Il Barbiere di Siviglia*, has been very much introduced:—it is sung in concerts and in musical society, and very many beautiful sonatas have been written upon this foundation.—Two particularly, from Mr. Latour and Mr. Bochsa, may be named, the last of which is eminently graceful. The recitative, and the air *O Patria tu che accendi*, from Tancredi, one of the first of Rossini's compositions which has reached this country, has also been much sung, and a passage of this, *Di tanti palpiti*, has been most exquisitely and ingeniously set, with variations, by M. Bochsa for the harp. Rossini's duets, *Se inclinasse a prender moglie*, from *L'Italiana in Algeri*, and *All'idea di quel metallo*, from *Il Barbiere di Siviglia*, which display very favourably, the rapid articulation of words and notes peculiar to Italian comedy, have also been generally well received. These compositions seem to convey a very accurate outline, generally speaking, of his style and manner, as evinced not only in *La Cenerentola*, but in his entire works; for though not without point and variety, Rossini is yet a mannerist. His great faculty seems to be the power of carrying the mind along agreeably, by means of lively and catching pieces of melody, of that cast which attract the attention and fix themselves in the memory. With more of sprightliness than of diversity, profundity, or originality, there is perhaps enough to captivate and enliven, without suffi-

\* *L'Italiana in Algeri*—*Elizabetta*—and *Il Barbiere di Siviglia*.

cient intensity either to affect the feelings, or excite any deep and lasting interest. Some of his concerted pieces are elaborately constructed, and put together with considerable technical skill and facility. They are highly wrought, both in the vocal and instrumental parts, but they are apt to cloy by a too frequent repetition of the same ideas. This objection will equally apply to *La Cenerentola*, as to his former works, if we add, that the music of this opera combines passages more singular than pleasing.

*La Cenerentola* was chosen for the first introduction of *Signor Torri*, who sustained the character of the prince, to an English audience. His voice is a tenor, neither remarkable for compass nor tone. His intonation is, however, good, and his power of executing passages with neatness and velocity, considerable. His taste is rather chastened than brilliant, and his whole performance seemed more subdued than energetic or ambitious, in which perhaps the fears attending a first appearance were something concerned. His gesture and physiognomy, are free and expressive, and denote considerable sensibility. There was scarcely enough in this piece to enable an audience to decide upon the extent of his powers. He was, however, well received, and encored in one of his songs. The other principal performers, *Signor Ambrogetti*, *Madame Bellochi*, *Signora Gattie*, and *Miss Mori*, had nothing peculiar allotted them. The part of the former is all bustle and ridiculous importance; to the latter is assigned one air of agility, but not of superior excellence. *Madame Bellochi* sings well and acts better. The next novelty will be a new opera by *Signor Liverato*, composed in this country, which is a novelty indeed.

The concerts of the metropolis are yet hardly more advanced than they were a month since.

The arrival of *Madame Mara* in this country, after having been formally killed in 1798, by the editors of the French Historical Dictionary, and dug out of the ruins of Moscow subsequently by all the journalists of Europe, has excited much inquiry and conversation among the musical people, who remember with a degree of admiration, never effaced by the brightest prodigies that have since

arisen upon our horizon, the dignity of the finest singer the world ever saw in the genuine great style. *Madame Mara* cannot, we apprehend, be less than seventy-four years old. In the September of the year 1772, *Dr. Burney* heard her at Berlin as *Miss Scheneling*, when he describes her to have been about twenty-five years of age. It seems at this moment a curious coincidence, that, in the first paragraph wherein her name is to be found, he mentions *Signora Gasparini*, as the first singer of the serious opera, at seventy-two, "a time of life," says the Doctor, "when nature seldom allows us any other voice than that of complaint or second childhood." There is, certainly, very much curiosity to hear *Madame Mara*, and we understand the public expectation is likely to be gratified by her appearance in the ancient concerts towards the end of February. We remember the unfortunate attempt of *Signora Gallet*, one of *Handel's* finest contralto singers, and we trust no such pitiable degradation is reserved for the last performances of the grand idol of English vocal recollections.

The Vocal Concerts commence on the 25th of February.

At the last of the London subscription Concerts, on Thursday the 13th, *Mr. Cipriani Potter*, played one of *Mozart's* piano forte concertos, in a style that attracted great applause, and *Mr. Loder* of Bath led the favourite quartetto of *Haydn*, in which is the hymn to the Emperor, with his acknowledged excellence.

While the resuscitation, as it were, of the *Mara*, invites the regard of the musical public of England, we have intelligence that the first efforts of our native talent, transplanted in its maturity to the eastern world, are hailed with peculiar curiosity and estimation, in those regions whither so little of European musical science has hitherto penetrated. In the spring of last year, *Mr. and Mrs. Lacy*, gifted with the first ability, left this country to settle at Calcutta. The ship which conveyed them stopped at Madras, where these professors were received by the worthy Governor with the most gratifying hospitality. They gave a concert, during the few days they remained there, in the Governor's house. The tickets were five pagodas, or about two pounds each, and the per-

formance was attended by all the fashion of Madras.

We have the satisfaction to learn from certain authority, that Mr. Bartleman will be able this season to resume the exercise of his profession. Amidst a somewhat general dearth of vocal talent, there is in no department so lamentable a deficiency as in that which he alone of late years has been thought capable of sustaining.

The professors of Norfolk, principally from Yarmouth and Norwich, have formed a society upon the principles of the Philharmonic Society of London, and their first meeting was on the 18th, at the assembly-rooms in that city. The professors are not numerous, but they are reinforced by amateurs; and the instrumental part of the concert exceeded any provincial performance ever heard there. The band is complete; and it may convey some idea of its excellence to say, that Haydn's *Surprise*, Beethoven's symphony in C, and Cherubini's overture to *Lodoiska*, were executed with great spirit and precision. Miss Venes, a pupil of Mr. Bellamy, who is almost new to the public, sung. The middle and lower tones of her voice are particularly rich and powerful; but there is a defect in the manner of bringing out her *voce di testa*, that indicates a want of good instruction. Her articulation of words is clear; and from the direction of these her natural powers, her efforts would be perhaps addressed with most success to the style of the simple English ballad, in which there is a probability of her attaining considerable perfection.

The growth of new compositions has not been exceedingly prolific. Mr. Moore's second number of *National Melodies*, the first of which justly enjoyed such universal approbation, has been delayed by the plates. Mr. Novello is proceeding rapidly with his complete collection of Mozart's *Masses*. The seventh number [No. 9 in the order of succession] has appeared. This work is eminently entitled to the attention of classical musicians; for not only are the *Masses* in themselves compositions which stand in the first rank of genius, but in them will be found many of the germs of Mozart's ideas, subsequently developed in his later productions.

It is known that the *Comedy of Errors* has lately been brought out at Covent Garden Theatre, interspersed with music, composed, selected, and arranged by Mr. Bishop, which has just been printed. The overture is a pasticcio, or medley, from the works of the various masters who have adapted the several parts of Shakspeare's dramas that were written for music. We have some of the brightest portions of Matthew Lock's music to *Macbeth*, together with others less familiar, agreeably combined. Among the songs, duets, and trios, are some old favourites, with some new, but not very striking, productions of Mr. Bishop's; yet, on the whole, they who seek will find fancy, taste, and amusement. Sir John Stevenson's duet, "*Tell me where is Fancy bred*," (originally designed for a bass and soprano, and exalted in its effect by being given to two sopranos) is introduced into the performance, but of course is not to be found in this edition. "*Blow, blow thou Winter's Wind*," has been long since better harmonized by an amateur. The manly gaiety of "*Under the Greenwood Tree*" is preserved, and indeed we think augmented, by the addition of the parts: they make it more social, without detracting from its bright and most desirable animation:—it is full of wholesome vigour and the uncorrupted enjoyment of natural images and feelings, and free from the enfeebling artifices of our over-stimulated voluptuousness. The songs are the least effective parts, though various in style, and one or two of them highly wrought.

Mr. Burrowes, so well known by his many meritorious publications, has commenced a series of *Caledonian Airs with variations*. The first two numbers are before us. Perhaps there is no music so strictly national as the Scotch. Its identity and its effect depend chiefly on its simplicity and on its strong accentuation. It may therefore seem doubtful whether such melodies are best adapted for variations. The airs selected by Mr. Burrowes are, *The Blue Bells of Scotland*, and one not so well known, *Kenmures on and awa'*. The last named has hardly enough in it, for the purpose; as a whole, the sonata is pleasing, but there is nothing to call down particular notice. The Blue

Bells is better treated, or else the beauty of the theme has led our judgment astray. We doubt whether Mr. Burrowes will be able to find diversity enough for his variations to support a continuous publication from Scotch melodies. We shall be agreeably disappointed if his acknowledged talent surmounts the difficulty.

We have also an Introduction, a National Waltz, and Variations from Mr. Latour. In the Introduction there is a foretaste of the theme, in so far as a consistent regard to the subject is preserved throughout. It is marked and measured, and not without the peculiar sentiment that is attached to the national dance of the Germans, immortalized, if by nothing else, by its association with the names of Charlotte and Werter. The Waltz selected, though graceful, is not, we think, of a very high order of beauty. The variations are in the cast of Mr. Latour's style. Level, smooth, rarely inelegant, and never vulgar. The lesson seems to aim at agreeable novelty, and reaches its aim. It is neither complicated in its structure, nor difficult of execution, yet as a whole it is sweet and sparkling.

Mr. Bochsa has given us a Rondo, and recitative, and Rondoletto for the harp. The productions of this gentleman are generally full of vigour, feeling, and refinement. Of these

qualities his two last partake, though not so eminently perhaps as some of his former works: yet a certain fertility and richness never wholly desert his passages. The recitative, if not an absolutely new idea, is yet peculiar, and we are not displeased with the effect. We like the Rondo less than the Rondoletto, parts of which are very elegant. Both breathe an air of originality, not very common at the present day.

A Sonata from the pen of Mr. Ries bears the marks of his peculiar manner. It has much more of pretension and difficulty than any of the works we have just mentioned. There are acquired tastes in the fine arts as well as in physical enjoyments. Those who have trained their imaginations to esteem Mr. Ries's raciness, will in this sonata have the qualification they delight in. Of single songs the month has been barren. One only, and that not worth notice, has met our observation.

The aid of music is called in to the relief of the miserable objects found shivering with cold and perishing for want in the streets of London. A concert, under the management of the Directors of the Amateur City Concerts, is to be given at the Egyptian Hall, on the second of February. Sir G. Smart will conduct it.

## NOTICES OF THE FINE ARTS.

### No. II.

THE DESCENT FROM THE CROSS. —Antonio Lati (*Corregio*) *pinx.* —Francisco Rosaspina, *sculptor.* —This picture is truly of the spirit, spiritual. —Corregio's mind must have been full to saturation, of the honey-dew of Christianity, when he gave birth to this mysterious conception. —A holy love swims over the surface of the deep, dead sea of grief, in which every object is immersed,—like the floating mist-wreaths, with which Ossian clothes his ghosts. The women dissolve in the very "*luxury of woe.*"

This design is the precise antipodes to that fine one of Caracci (so beautifully engraved by Roulet) on the same subject. It wants nearly every

thing which Annibale's possesses. It is defective in correctness of outline, careless in anatomy; neither heads nor hands, are laboriously painted up from tawny Jew clothesmen and lady models from the academy;—and, to top all, the colouring is little more than chiaroscuro. (This last circumstance indeed, has rendered it easier for the engraver to transpose the whole beauty of the original into the sweet print before us.)—What is it, then, that so amply compensates for these grievous omissions; and which sweeps away its rival before it, in the estimation of every *poetical* mind, supported as it is, by studied drapery, extremities drawn with the utmost precision, vigour of execution,

fine colour, and (in the Print,) the most delicate, and scientific tooling?

The first glance at it will enable us to answer—*sentiment!*—the one thing wanting in Carracci's.

It is time now to give some account of the composition.

The body of Jesus, extended on the ground, is partly supported on the knees of his fainting mother, who, with collapsed limbs, almost as lifeless as the cold corpse (whose dying features have settled into an expression, breathing forth peace to all mankind), reclines, in the utter exhaustion of grief, on the bosom of a female, who appears to lack pity for herself in bewailing the loss of the desolate mother. Sunk on the ground before the God of her adoration, lies the wretched Magdalen; with disordered hair, clasped hands, quivering mouth, and eyes blinded with tears.

Another female, hidden in great part; one solitary man descending from the cross; rocks and trees, which entirely close the back-ground, and are but dimly seen through a warm twilight, compose the simple, but deep materials, of this luxuriously poetical engraving.

But few impressions of this charming work of Rosaspina have reached this country. The one from which this very inadequate description is taken, hangs neglected in a dark corner of Colnaghi's little inner room.

JANUS WEATHERCOCK.

*Exhibition at the Great Room, Spring Gardens, of Mr. F. W. Wilkin's Large Picture of the Battle of Hastings.*—This picture, possessing strong claims to public attention, is the first original work of a gentleman, before known, in the arts, only as an extraordinary copyist, in water colours, of fine old pictures. It was by him that the drawings were made for the splendid gallery of engravings, projected by Mr. Buchanan; and the picture we are now called upon to notice is the result of a liberal commission, given to him by Sir Godfrey Webster. It certainly appears extraordinary, that Sir Godfrey should have had the courage to entrust the execution of so important a work to a young man, little known, and at so liberal a price too, as two thousand guineas: but, if older, or perhaps abler hands, had been charged with the commis-

sion, we should have been deprived of this new development of talent; and we therefore hail it as honourable both to the employer and to the painter. The patronage has been directed, in this instance, in the only way that it ever can be beneficially: viz. to the *employment* of talent,—not in speculative efforts to create it. We have long thought, that ill bestowed patronage is one of the greatest checks to the advancement of British art. Boys, whose drawings have surprized the weak heads, or kind hearts, of certain persons whose ambition is roused to usher into the world young Raphaels, have been supported, to their own and art's misfortune, only to prove, by melancholy examples, that mind, as well as hand, is essential to distinguished success in the profession of a painter. Nine, out of ten, young painters, are thus decoyed into the pursuit of an art, for which they are quite unfit, which requires powers beyond those of imitation to obtain eminence; and their patrons too late discover, in their disappointment, that there is a great distance from imitation to invention; and that the most practised obedience of the hand to the eye, gives no evidence of the capacity of noble thought.

Not only is the consequence often fatal to the hopes of the protégé; but the patron, because his pupil has fallen short of the old masters, of whom he has heard so much, at last considers every effort to encourage a rivalry with them as hopeless. There are always interested creatures active enough, among picture dealers and *cognoscenti*, to sustain this prejudice; and dissipate a fortune in trash, bearing the names of schools and masters, which would dishonour description. We are delighted then by observing this liberal and patriotic commission of Sir Godfrey to Mr. Wilkin. It is the commencement, we hope, of a generous race with Sir J. F. Leicester, who has nobly led the way in breaking through the trammels of prejudice, and asserting a right to think for himself, even though he should not agree with the dogmas of those, who believe all to be without the pale of taste, who can condescend to be pleased with a modern picture.

Mr. Wilkin's picture is painted, to be placed in Battel Abbey, the seat of Sir Godfrey Webster, on the very

spot where the great national struggle took place, which this work of art commemorates. This circumstance will explain the choice of subject;—which is one that would not otherwise, we think, have been selected by Mr. Wilkin. Battles excite few feelings, which are not abhorrent from the best part of our nature; nor can we except any but those of a patriot, excited by the successes of his country. Here, however, the reverse occurs. Many eminent men, have, it is true, employed their talents on such scenes; but that is, because the mere jumble of men, and horses, and arms, arranged according to certain rules in art, make up a display, easily attained. Like the poet's, however, the painter's power is greatest in the "home of the heart;" and certainly there are incidents connected with battles by which our sympathies may be powerfully excited. Such were introduced into Bird's Chevy Chase; and the death of Harold, in the present picture, who falls struggling for the independence of his country, whilst fighting as a foot soldier, is of this nature. The moment chosen, is that in which William advances to the spot, where his ambition, if it can have consummation, is completely gratified;—the spot where he sees his rival dead before him. Some of the soldiers are raising Harold, and one holds up the fatal arrow, which explains his death.—We think that the countenance of William wants a touch of that expressive exultation, which he must have felt. With this exception, the character and gesture are appropriate. The Bishop of Bayeaux on his left, is complimented by the painter, with a most diabolical head and expression. He is said, in the descriptive catalogue, to be "watching with intensity, the countenance of William, wishing to participate, as it were by a look, in the pleasure he knows him to feel at the idea of having attained his object." A painter would do well to omit, as much as possible, describing what he

intends by his agents:—if they require it, it is the severest censure his picture can receive. The expressions should describe his picture. The old Saxon soldier, extended in the foreground, is finely conceived. His expression admirably represents his feelings; and the action is simple, appropriate, and energetic. With an agonizing effort, he casts a dying look on the scene, which closes, in the darkness of their fate, his own and his monarch's life.

In the colour of the picture there is a prevailing clayey yellowness of tone. The want of more cold and positive colour, and of vigour of effect, is unpleasantly felt. Indeed the want of force is generally experienced throughout the picture; and things are not sufficiently distinguished in their character, by *handling*,—a means, which our ablest painters employ so well, to mark the difference between flesh, and wood, and stone, and cloth,—producing a distinction independent of colour or form, and representing the texture of the object.

But these are minor faults compared with those in the drawing. In this respect it is that Mr. W. principally fails. His horses are wooden, spiritless, and disproportioned; the legs of Harold are much too short for his body, and there are many others, Saxons and Normans, in the same predicament. The defects in question are not so much in the details of drawing, as in the proportions of his figures; this, we hope to see corrected in his future efforts, for, with the facilities for study now possessed in England, negligence or ignorance under this head is unpardonable. Much credit is due to Mr. W. for the research and accuracy of his costume, and, on the whole, he has produced a picture which gives him rank in his profession, and which is far beyond the usual first efforts of young painters, whether it be considered as a proof of courage, or a display of ability.

T.

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#### GLEANINGS FROM THE FOREIGN JOURNALS.

LITERARY CONSCIENCES. — We learn from a Parisian Review, that a work has appeared in the French capital of rather a new cast, and of a

nature to excite something of a *vive sensation* amongst its literati, if it be executed with any skill or spirit. It is entitled *Literary Consciences*; with

*a Scale of comparative Degrees of Talent.* This book contains several tables, each divided into five columns. The first presents the names of living authors; the second the titles or the subjects of their productions; the third indicates, by a figure, the *degree* of their conscience; the fourth the degree of their genius; and the fifth of their power of pleasantry. The number 10, is supposed to express the maximum of each. Few indeed attain, either in conscience or talent, to this highest number. From what we can discover, by means of the criticism, we should apprehend the book is devoted to party politics, but the political weathercocks seem to be chastised in it. Mr. Azais has the zero in conscience and talent affixed to his name, and his wife is complimented with the maximum in both. "Here," says the critic, "is an ingenious piece of gallantry, which, we are sure, must very much flatter the husband."

THE FINE ARTS.—M. Jouy, one of the most able French critics, speaks very highly of a picture, on the bewitching subject of Cupid and Psyche, which has been lately painted by M. Picot. "Aurora announces the day: Love is on the point of leaving the bed of Psyche: with one hand he is putting aside a rich purple curtain,—the other he extends towards his weapons: his look is cast back on his sweet companion, who is still asleep, and dreaming, as it would appear, of her felicity. We give it all the praise that can be given, when we affirm, that in this picture may be found the entire charm of the subject,—the true *ideal* of voluptuous pleasure. Never has Love been before clothed with so seducing a form: divine adolescence shines in his features: grace and lightness are in his motions. Nothing formal, nothing of the academy, can be detected in this composition."—We quote this warm panegyric, to give us an opportunity of expressing our regret, that the fanciful subjects, to be found in the classical mythology and poetry, more adapted, as they are, than any others, for the peculiar powers of the pencil and chisel, are not more often selected by British artists. It is in these that we can pronounce fairly on the degree of poetical imagination possessed by an artist,—for the stories resolve themselves into the

proper creations of the art of design, and the painter, or the sculptor, can copy from the ancient poet in a way not to hurt his claim to originality. Howard has done some sweet things in this way; and, when a taste for fine art really belongs to our nation, we shall see more attention paid to this class of subject.—Mr. Jouy, in continuing his criticisms on the late French exhibition, notices a painting, in which some English prisoners to a French party in Spain, which was employed to convoy wounded soldiers, are represented as defending their enemies against a sudden attack of the guerrillas, whose object was to murder all, even to the women and the maimed, of the French. "The English," says Mr. Jouy, "are worthy to follow French example, so often given to them in this respect;—but *of right* it only belongs to a French painter to consecrate such an act!"

ENGLAND AND FRANCE.—The readers of the article, in the last No. of the Edinburgh Review, on the *Comparative Skill and Industry of France and England* (from which we made a short extract in our first No.), would be much amused, could they see a late paper, which has appeared in the Paris journal called the *Minerve*, the subject of which is, *l'Industrie Française*. The author is Mr. Tissot, professor of Latin poetry, and certainly the worst writer on modern history, to be found in the ranks of the *Minerve*. He, and Mr. Jouy, whom we have quoted in the previous paragraph, are the two bitterest traducers of England among those who write in this work; but, in the latter case, we cannot console ourselves, as in the former, by the dullness of our critic. Mr. Jouy is extremely clever; and, as a proof of it, he is always most amusing when he writes on subjects of which he has evidently no knowledge. Mr. Tissot says, that the chief passion in Mr. Pitt's breast was hatred of France, and that they who now laugh at the Jacobin stories, circulated during the revolution, of the English minister's being at the bottom of all the French plots and massacres of that period, are "*mad*." What would it cost to the bad heart of this man, asks Mr. Tissot, could he see how French industry has triumphed over his hateful arts to ruin it, as the French arms

have triumphed over the military resistance of England? The treaty of Paris, and the article in the Edinburgh Review, furnish the reply to this question. "All is changed to our advantage," says the professor, "in the position of the two nations." The comparative tables, given in the Scottish journal, furnish a curious commentary on this assertion. We apprehend no French bookseller durst publish a translation of the Edinburgh article: the frequenters of the Palais Royal would tear any one to pieces as a traitor to his country, who should attempt this—and the longer they continue in this dispassionate humour, the better for England. The high state of attainment to which French manufactures and commerce have reached, and the sound sense of their eulogist, may be judged of by the concluding recommendation of the writer to his government: he advises that it should make purchases, "*sagement répartis*," amongst the manufacturing establishments, as a powerful means of supporting their efforts!

FRENCH POLITENESS. — *Extract from the Minerve.* "In traversing the Boulevard to-day, I observed a group of young men laughing at an Englishman, who had an elderly lady on his arm. The dress and manner of this lady, *contrasted, it must be allowed, very oddly with the bewitching forms and graceful dress of our Parisian women*: but is this a reason for pursuing two strangers with a smile of disdain or pity?"

NAPOLEON AND BENJAMIN CONSTANT.—The latter person whom we have named, is one of the smartest political writers which Paris at present possesses. Our readers know that he has lately added to his title of journalist, that of member of the chamber of deputies: his election, however, does not hinder him from continuing an active co-operator in a weekly paper, where all his articles are signed with his name,—a circumstance which will doubtless be deemed frank and fine by certain thinkers of a slight stamp, but which, nevertheless, is a proceeding that indicates a raw, false, ill-arranged state of public habits, in the country where it can take place without causing much useless personal inconvenience to the individual practising it. There must be distinct ranks and relations in a

well ordered established community; the confounding of which together, if ever attempted by personal rashness or vanity, should instantly set in action the check of public displeasure and disgust. An instinctive feeling of the fit and decent, superior to argument, and therefore out of the reach of sophistry,—quicker than reason, and therefore not liable to be surprised,—is one of the most useful and becoming of our national distinctions. It certainly exists no where else with the same force as here,—and it would at once point out the indecency and unsuitableness of rendering the name of a leading member of either of our two houses of parliament, the principal and most prominent object of attention in a party newspaper. We cannot be suspected of a wish to speak slightly of the respectability of editors: but we do not wish to see them confounded with members of parliament, nor members of of Parliament confounded with them. To do this would be to hurt the utility of both. Our present business, however, does not lie with either: it is simply to quote, from a series of letters on the "*hundred days*," which Mr. Constant has recently published, a very interesting account which he gives of his conversation with Napoleon, on the first arrival of the latter at Paris from Elba. Mr. Constant describes his mind as wavering between hope and fear, relative to the probable fate of liberty under the reinstated sovereign, when,—“I suddenly received the following note:—

The Chamberlain on service has the honour to inform Mr. Benjamin Constant, that he has received the orders of his Majesty the Emperor, to invite him to attend at the palace of the Tuileries without delay. The Chamberlain on service begs Mr. Benjamin Constant to receive the assurance of his distinguished consideration.

Paris, 14th April, 1815.

“I went to the Tuileries, and I found Bonaparte alone. He commenced the conversation. It was long, and I shall only give an analysis of it here, for it is not my wish to put in exhibition a person who has been unfortunate. I do not wish to amuse my readers at the expense of fallen power: I will not deliver up to a malicious curiosity him whom I have served,—whatever my motive may have been in entering into his service.

Of what he said I shall only give what I consider indispensable ; but, in what I do give, it will be his real words that I shall report.—He did not attempt to deceive me ; neither as to his views, nor in regard to the state of things. He did not at all present himself as corrected by the lessons of adversity. He shewed no wish to take to himself the merit of returning to liberty through inclination. He coldly examined, with reference to his own interest, and with an impartiality too akin to indifference, what was practicable, and what ought to be preferred. ‘The nation,’ said he to me, ‘has reposed twelve years from all political agitation: during one year it has rested also from war: this double quiet has given it a need for fresh activity. It accordingly demands a tribune, and popular assemblies. It has not always wished for these. Did it not throw itself at my feet when I first came to the government? You ought to recollect this, for you are one who then attempted opposition. Where was your support, where your strength? No where. I took less authority than I was invited to take:—but to day all is changed in this respect. A feeble government, at variance with the national interests, has given to these interests the habit of holding themselves on the defensive, and has permitted the questioning and teasing of authority. The taste for constitutions, debates, and harangues, appears to be revived:—and yet, don’t deceive yourself,—it is only the minority that has this taste. The people,—or, if you like it better, the multitude,—has no wish but for me. You were not there to see the crowd pressing around my steps, precipitating itself from the tops of mountains,—calling to me, seeking me, saluting me! In my journey from Cannes, here, I had no need to conquer—I reigned.—I am not the Emperor of the soldiers only, as has been said of me,—but of the peasants, the plebeians of France. You accordingly see, in spite of all the past, that the people return to me. There is a sympathy between us. It is not the same thing with the privileged orders. The nobles have served me, it is true ; they poured by crowds into my antichambers. There was not a place

at my disposal, which they did not accept, solicit, demand! I have had the Montmorencis, the Noailles, the Rohans, the Beauvais, the Mortemarts ;—but there never was a fellow feeling between us: the steed pranced gallantly, he was well broken-in, but I felt him tremble under me! With the people it was another thing:—the popular fibre corresponded with mine, for I came myself from the popular ranks, and my voice acted on the popular feeling. Look at these conscripts, these sons of peasants! I never flattered them ; I have been accustomed to treat them even harshly ;—but they did not surround me the less ;—they did not the less cry *Vive l’Empereur!* The reason is, that we are of the same nature. They regard me as their support and salvation against the nobles. I have only to make a sign,—or rather to turn away my head,—and the nobility are massacred in all the provinces: and this is what they have brought themselves to, by their pretty management during the last ten months. But, however, I do not wish to be the mere king of a *Jacquerie*. If there are means of governing constitutionally, with all my heart—let them be tried, and welcome. I certainly did covet the empire of the world, and to secure it, unlimited power was necessary. It is very possible that to govern France alone, a constitution may be better. My wish was to hold the sceptre of the world! Who would not have wished it in my place! The world invited me to take charge of it. Sovereigns and subjects rushed, faster than my desires, to obey me! I have but rarely met with resistance in France ; yet I will say, that I have experienced more serious opposition from a few disarmed and obscure Frenchmen, than from all these kings, now so proud that they have no longer a man of the people as their equal!—Let us see, then, what it may be possible to do. Bring me your ideas. Public discussion, you say,—free elections,—responsible ministers,—the liberty of the press:—Well I have no objection to any of these things. A free press, above all, seems to me absolutely necessary: to think of stifling it now would be absurd. I am quite convinced on that point. In fact, I am the man of the people, and if the

people really wish liberty, I owe it to them. I have recognised their sovereignty,—and it is my duty to listen to their will,—I may say even caprices. I have never found a pleasure in oppressing. I entertained great designs,—and fortune has settled them to my disappointment:—I am no longer a conqueror; and can never be one again: I see clearly what can be, and what cannot. One mission only now remains to me; that of raising France from its present position, and giving it a suitable government. It is a mistake to think that I hate liberty: I have to be sure removed it when I found it in my way but I comprehend it perfectly, for I was brought up in that school, you know. Besides, I have no alternative: the work of fifteen years is destroyed, and it can't be begun over again. For this purpose twenty years, and two millions of men, would be wanted. But my wish is peace, which at present cannot be obtained but by victories. It is not to you that I would give false hopes:—I let people say that there are negotiations on foot, but the plain truth is that there are none. I foresee a difficult struggle, and a long war. To sustain it the nation must support me; and, in return, I suppose it will exact liberty. Very well—it shall be given. Circumstances are all new: I wish nothing better than to be put right if I have been wrong. In fact, I feel myself getting older: we are not the same persons at forty-five as at thirty. The quiet of a constitutional monarch might suit me very well now; and it would be still better for my son.'

"Such was the substance of my first interview with Bonaparte."

There is, it appears to us, a great character of truth in the above singular sketch: and we think it shows Napoleon in an interesting light. That he was sincere, in the common and most correct sense of the word, throughout this *representation* of himself to Mr. Constant, we see evident reason for disbelieving: he was acting a part, calculated on his opinion of the person whom he was addressing, and seeking to gain; and he

combined his present with his past rôle, as he no doubt thought, very dextrously. But yet there is a certain air of loquacity, of pouncing egotism, and shrewd, ready observation, pushing its conclusions to extremes,—breathing about and in this morsel, which seems to come from a source of constitutional weakness with which we can sympathise. The talent of the speaker is evident; but we seem to perceive that he is the dupe of himself, even when he is making, or attempting to make, dupes of others. An English gentleman, who spent three days in his society at Elba, told us that his conversation was of a most smart vivacious cast; but was almost entirely made up of what an Englishman instinctively detects—"humbugging." The scene with Mr. Constant bears the same character, but it must be allowed to be "humbugging" of a very clever kind. There is a character of frankness, too, apparent in its very artifice;—the quackery is natural:—the bustle of feeling, the promptitude of avowal, the familiarity of appeal, are all amusing rather than deceptive, and, on reading Mr. Benjamin Constant's account of his visit to the Tuileries, we felt, for the first time in our lives, a wish to have a little chat with the loquacious captive of St. Helena,—allowing him of course to have nineteen-twentieths of the talk.

Mr. Constant tells us in a note, that Napoleon, at this interview, entrusted him with six pages of manuscript, which he had himself either written or dictated, and which, at all events, he had most carefully corrected with his own hand. This was a reply to an assertion made by Lord Castlereagh in parliament, that the success of the expedition from Elba was entirely owing to the French military. Napoleon wished to prove to Europe, that the soldiers were by no means his sole, or even principal supporters. The style of this piece, Mr. Constant says, "was distinguished by warmth, by expressions irregular but strong, by much rapidity of thought, and some touches of true eloquence."

## MEDICAL ARTICLE.

## No. II.

BEFORE entering upon the particular subjects which it is proposed to handle in these papers, there is still one matter of a preliminary nature, and of some importance, remaining to be noticed. It is necessary to explain how far the ordinary inquirer may safely proceed in paying attention to what regards his health. Much is done to render a task light and pleasing, when its nature and extent are exactly defined.

The science of medicine, in its comprehensive acceptation, is unquestionably the most difficult to which the human mind can be applied;—for, in investigating all that can affect or illustrate the human frame, it embraces almost every branch of general knowledge. Hence, without many years of assiduous study, and considerable natural powers in the individual, the intelligent physician or surgeon cannot be formed.

There is, however, a much more limited view of what regards our bodily economy, yet one very complete in itself, and susceptible of being well defined, which is of easy acquisition to common minds, and which may properly be distinguished by the title of *popular medicine*. This every person should be familiar with, as a part of necessary general knowledge, and it is this which will furnish the topics of the following papers.

The information of the well educated physician must comprise such a minute acquaintance with the anatomical structure and functions of the body, that no morbid change in these, however slight, may escape his scrutiny; and his knowledge of all the ordinary, and even possible changes, must be perfect enough, to enable him readily to distinguish between appearances the most resembling—for apparently similar diseases often require very opposite modes of treatment. He must also know the influence, on the body, of every circumstance or thing which can cause disease, or promote recovery—such as the degrees and kinds of exercise, temperature, air, aliments, and medicinal substances, mineral, botanical, animal, &c. &c.

The non-professional man again, need only know how to guard himself against the *causes* of disease, and when his state of health requires that he should consult a regular member of the faculty. Beyond this degree of knowledge, there is no safe stopping place, until he masters the whole.

Now the common error of popular students, and of most popular treatises, has been to confound the more intricate subjects of minute medicine, which appertain exclusively to the physician's province, with the general maxims which are fitted for public instruction. The natural consequence has followed;—individuals, acting upon partial information, have often done serious harm to themselves and to others. We have all heard of fatal accidents occurring in this way. In a family, known to the writer of this article, the father was thus suddenly lost to his numerous children. A respectable female friend, who was daily receiving the blessings of her neighbourhood for her charities and medical advice, thought she could manage his case, but mistook an aneurism in the leg, for a common abscess; and, when at last the tumour burst, instead of the discharge which was expected from it, it poured out the circulating blood, and the unhappy man instantly expired. During this very month another striking case of the same character has occurred within the observation of the writer, by which a whole family was thrown into a very alarming state, and the youngest child was destroyed. A nursery servant, just from the country, was supposed to have communicated the itch to one of the children. The mother, ashamed that such an occurrence should have happened in her house, made first known her distress to an intimate female friend, saying how unwilling she was, that any one else, out of the family, should know of the disagreeable accident. The friend told her that this was quite unnecessary, as she herself knew a very ready and safe cure for the disease. The remedy, in the form of an ointment, was accordingly procured, and, to make sure that the

disease should not lurk with any one of the family, all were anointed with it next morning; their bodies were universally blistered, and, on the second day, they were in strong mercurial salivation. The infant of ten months old, which was teething at the time, died of convulsions in the evening.

It is needless farther to multiply examples of this kind, as they are daily presenting themselves, both from the ill advised, but generally well meaning officiousness of friends, and also sometimes, from the deficient information of inferior but tolerated practitioners. Were the public to busy itself only about the business of keeping disease away, while it left to medical men, that of attacking disease when declared, it would be much the best and safest plan to pursue;—and were those bold lay practitioners, who fancy themselves each an Esculapius, to limit their opposition to the regular faculty, to inculcating sound maxims of regimen, they would do the Doctors infinitely more harm than now, and themselves more honour.

The series of papers which we have commenced, will have for object, to direct the attention of their readers to the medical matters which properly concern them,—to impart the information which they should possess on all subjects connected with their health, and, from simple views of our constitution and the circumstances affecting it, to deduce the plain rules or maxims which may

guard us against the common dangers to which we are exposed.

We shall set out from the grand truth, that nature has so constituted all animals, and among them, man, that, under certain attainable circumstances, of climate, aliment, &c. they may enjoy perfect and uninterrupted health,—these circumstances differing, however, with each species. The inferior animals are unerringly directed by what has been called their instinct;—so also is man in the state of nature; but, as he is now situated, inhabiting the most opposite climates of the earth, and under all degrees of civilization, his existence, in many instances, is as much artificial and forced, as is that of the plants and animals which he nurses under cover; and the business of watching over his welfare becoming thus exceedingly complicated, it is no wonder that he is frequently injured by error in this respect.

The circumstances, affecting his health, which he has it in his power to change or regulate, and upon which all his artificial modes of life bear, are, TEMPERATURE, AIR, FOOD, and EXERCISE OF BODY AND MIND. In perversions of these, all the causes of his diseases must be found, and, by proper management of them, man would be capable to secure his natural health. This view of the subject will direct our future course; and, in the next article we shall begin with the important subject of TEMPERATURE.

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## RURAL ECONOMICS.

THE principal objections to the granting of long leases by the landlord, and accepting them by the tenant, relate to the interests of both. They are, first, the inconveniences to which the landlord may be subjected, by being compelled to wait inconveniently for resumption, or in cases of wilful mismanagement or negligence on the part of the occupier: and, secondly, the ruinous loss which may be sustained by the farmer; in consequence of a continued decline in the price of his produce.

Where farms are exclusively appropriated to darning, grazing, or breeding; and where the expense of draining, subdividing, new fencing, of new buildings, or other permanent improvements to the estate, may not be stipulated to be done on advance of capital

by the tenant,—a lease on no account should be granted for a term exceeding five years. An express condition ought to be inserted in such leases, that, in the event of the landlord becoming desirous of resuming, or the tenant of quitting, on the expiration of that term, either party shall be at liberty so to do, on giving six months notice in writing, to the other, of such intention: but in the event of no such notice being given, the occupation to continue for another like term of years, and so on, until notice issue to the contrary. In mixed farms, under a system of convertible husbandry; and in those which are wholly under cultivation by the plough, whatever may be the mode of culture or cropping, according to that routine of crops which

is unavoidable where lands are not in severalty, but which, where they are, may be determined on, as most beneficial between landlord and tenant; the number of years which such a succession may employ, should regulate, or rather decide the duration of the lease. Should the rotation of crops require 3, 4, 5, 6, or 7 years, the term granted should be only for the specific period, requisite for one full and complete round—whether it demand 3 or 7 years; attended by a condition for the like six months' notice, previous to its expiration, for resumption or relinquishment. Should no notice be given by either party, the tenant continues his occupation until the termination of another round of cropping, and so on, as in the former instance, subject to the like provision.

Thus the relative situation of the landlord and tenant may continue for very many years; and, whenever the lands shall again revert to the proprietor, they will be found in so fit a state for a succeeding occupier, as far as relates to their previous mode of culture, as to preclude any reasonable demand for a temporary reduction of rent. As a tenant, unapprehensive of being early dispossessed, may be induced to make costly improvements, though of a temporary description; or, in the confidence of remaining undisturbed for a length of time, may sink a capital to the substantial and permanent benefit of the inheritance—lest resumption in the latter case be unexpectedly demanded, or, in the former one, be required before a fair return from such temporary improvements be obtained,—a further provision, for either case, should be introduced into the lease,—for securing to the lessee a proportionate compensation, by submitting the expence of such temporary, or permanent, improvements, to the decision of an inquest of neighbours, mutually chosen by the parties. Under the protection of this fair and equitable covenant, the tenant would fearlessly bring forward his capital, and the landlord would become benefited in the application of it, by its being expended where most required—at the most proper season—in the most frugal and appropriate manner—and under the special direction of a party, whose more immediate interest prompted the expenditure, and whose vigilant attention to the progress of the operation would bid fair to insure a successful result.

This plan of leasing farms has been adopted, and successfully acted on, in a central county, with great satisfaction to all parties: for what can a good landlord desire more than a good tenant; and what can an industrious farmer more desire than to remain on the ground, which for a period of years has made him a due return for his honest exertions? Should rents rise, the landlord may avail himself of the covenant, and give the required notice: but who can so discreetly afford to make a reason-

able advance in rent, as the resident occupier? If they fall, and the rent must be reduced, who is so justly entitled to consideration on a new letting, as an old tenant?

From the subject of leases, we pass to another of great present interest. A large portion of the public mind is become completely occupied with a legislative plan for providing against the threatened ruinous consequences to the general prosperity of agriculture, which are said to be inevitable on the importation of foreign corn, without such protecting duties as will enable the produce of Britain to meet foreign supplies in her own markets. From north to south, from east to west, this sentiment has spread forth, and been received as prophetic of the certain destruction which impends over the whole agricultural interests of the country. It has created a species of crusade in Rural Economics. The opinion is unquestionably sustained by able advocates, and sent abroad by indefatigable promulgators. Under these circumstances, as it is possible that not even the zealous efforts in question may ultimately succeed in accomplishing their object in parliament, it becomes particularly worth while to inquire, whether we have no hope, in case of their failure, and whether British agriculturists must be reduced to so lamentable a condition, as is by the numerous petitions predicted, should their prayers be rejected?

Whilst the mind is absorbed in regarding one mean of relief, as the only possible one against any specific ill, every other species of remedy, whether of a nature to meet, avert, or mitigate the baneful effects of the contemplated mischief, are overlooked and disregarded. If the welfare of the agricultural interest depended solely on the regulations to be adopted relative to the introduction of foreign produce: if the demanded restrictions on such introduction would ensure the sufficiency of the produce of our own soil for the maintenance of the people: if they would render the landowner and occupier fully equal to meet the present weight of state taxes and parochial rates, and at the same time enable them to furnish supplies of food in such abundance, and at so cheap a rate, to the labouring classes, as to allow the manufactures and commerce of Britain to compete with her foreign rivals in both: if all these happy effects were certain to follow the recommended regulations, then indeed the failure of the petitions could not be anticipated, without fear for the future agricultural fate of the empire.

On an admission that a want of protecting duties is at present a most grievous evil, and most highly injurious to British husbandry; but that, under existing circumstances, they cannot be enacted, the most urgent question is, what are the causes that have placed agriculture in this condition: and under what pressure such protecting duties have become so indispensable? The

next step in the inquiry is, whether these latter are not entitled to some portion of that thought, with a view to their removal, which is now exclusively devoted to measures for sustaining agriculture under their influence. As a refuge from despair; as a stimulus to the efforts of the friends of agriculture, it is become necessary to look to this side, as a preparation in case of disappointment from the other. Let us bear in remembrance the old adage of "*more ways to the wood than one.*" Perhaps it will be found, that agricultural prosperity may be more easily promoted by another path, while the exertions of its friends may be less impeded by popular opposition and clamour. These latter, form one of the *existing circumstances* constituting the most formidable objection which the advocates and supporters of the restrictive duties may probably have to combat in parliament.

The chief burthens on agriculture are confessedly—TITHES and POOR'S RATES, (burdens unknown in foreign states) and RENTS, and STATE TAXES, far exceeding the like annual payments made by the agriculturists of those countries whence our

foreign supplies are obtained. So long as these expensive drawbacks from the profits of the British farmer exist, so long must the cost of his produce exceed that of others, who farm where no such incumbrances on cultivation obtain. Extinguish the British farmer's extra expenses on his produce, and his articles will, on equal terms, meet those of strangers in our markets. The mode, however, by which an extinction or even a reduction of state taxes and parochial rates may be effected, cannot be so easily shown, as their influence on agriculture can be exhibited; yet are they not, on that account, to be deprecated only, or, without effort, supinely submitted to, be the consequences ever so fatal to the stability of the government, or the prosperity of the people? Let it be remembered they are evils of moral production, not of physical origin; and that the same spirit and zeal which are now manifested for protecting duties, might, if judiciously directed to the objects in question, be attended with wonderfully good effects, in reviving and sustaining the national glory and independence of the United Kingdom.

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## COMMERCIAL REPORT.

(London, Jan. 24.)

CONSIDERING the season of the year,—which is one when the operations of commerce are usually languid,—and the temporary impediments to business, arising from the interruption of the navigation of the river, by the severity of the frost, it can hardly be expected that any considerable change could have taken place since our last report; but we have at least the pleasure of saying, that the change which has occurred is favourable, and merchants of experience, and our manufacturers, contemplate, with much satisfaction, the prospect of a favourable turn in commercial affairs. By advices from the continent it appears, that the stocks of colonial produce are greatly reduced, and that both the demand and the prices are increasing. Large orders have been received in the beginning of the month from New York, for the manufactures of Yorkshire and Lancashire; but still the circumstance on which the greatest hopes are founded, is the new Russian Tariff, of which we spoke in our last, and some further particulars of which have been since received, and will be found below.

While we thus contemplate the favourable opinion entertained of the present prospects of commerce, by those, who, from interest and experience should seem the most capable of forming an accurate judgment, we ought perhaps to call to mind that the year which has just elapsed appeared to

commence under very auspicious circumstances, which caused the fondest anticipations of a prosperous and extensive trade; yet this fair perspective was soon obscured, and, instead of a vigorous and flourishing commerce, our trade proved to be a forced and unnatural exportation, draining the country of capital, and yielding no adequate return. If we investigate the losses sustained, we shall find them to have arisen, principally, from entering too extensively into the East India trade. The investments of British merchants outwards, and the returns made in the natural produce of the East, have yielded lower prices than from any other part of the world: other unforeseen causes of the difficulties under which commerce languished, originated in the poverty of our nearest customers, the inhabitants of the European continent,—in the commercial embarrassments of America, and in the prevalence of contagious disorders in many parts of the globe.

Independently of other circumstances affecting trade, we have had great and arduous difficulties to struggle with at home. Though we have not had the melancholy task of recording the progress of that spirit of discontent, which, we trust, is now subsiding, and for which returning prosperity will be the best cure; we may, however, notice it as one of the internal causes of commercial embarrassment. The important measures adopted for preparing a re-

turn to the ancient currency, could not be safely effected without reducing the issues of the Bank, which are now contracted to about twenty-two millions. The encouragement given to trade may be measured by the extent of the accommodation afforded by the Bank of England, and the necessity of limiting discounts naturally tends to a depression of commerce.

**COFFEE.**—The fluctuations of the Coffee market appear to have subsided; the holders continue firm, and will submit to no depression to facilitate sales. At a public sale of Demerara and Berbice Coffee, since the middle of the month, the finer lots went off at the previous prices, but towards the middle and close of the sale, the prices were from 2s. to 4s. per cwt. higher; triage ordinary, 128s. 6d., and middling, 146s. to 148s. Good ordinary Jamaica has been sold at 127s. The stock of British Plantation Coffee on hand was, on the 20th, 7,298 casks and 16,092 bags, which is less by 1190 tons, than at the same time last year, and the price 12s. per cwt. lower.

**SUGAR.**—The demand for Muscovades increases, and the prices are rather higher. The stock of B. P. Sugar in the warehouses is near 14,000 casks more than at the corresponding time last year, and the prices 14s. per cwt. lower.

The accounts from Liverpool and Glasgow, state much business to be doing in those markets. Sugars 2s. to 3s. higher. Muscovades, at both places, quoted higher than in London.—179 chests Brazil Sugars went off, at public sale, with great spirit, at an advance of from 2s. to 3s. on the whole, and of 1s. to 2s. on the brown, viz. White, middling, 41s. to 44s.:—Brown, good, 29s. to 30s. 685 bags East India, put up at the same time, sold freely at about 2s. higher, viz. White, good strong, 43s.; Yellow, 31s.; Brown, very low and damp, 22s. to 23s.

**COTTON.**—The purchases of Cotton have been inconsiderable; though, if the holders would give way a little, it is thought that many buyers would offer. 200 Bengals, sold, 6½, 50 Surats, 8½, 40 Smyrnas, 11½ to 12d.

**DYE WOODS.**—With the exception of Brazil-wood, these are nearly all depressed: the stock on hand is very large, and the importations still continue to exceed the exportation and home consumption. Of Brazil-wood, 78 cwt. was sold by auction, on the 12th, and produced the extraordinary high price of 290l. to 295l. per ton, in bond, to which, adding duty 20 per cent. makes it equal to 313l. such a price as the article never before realized. This is said, with what truth we know not, to be the only parcel in Europe, except what little may be in Holland.

**INDIGO** (Spanish) is not much sought after, and the sale as well as the quantity in this country very trifling; the chief con-

sumption being of that exported from the East Indies, which has now, through the persevering exertions of our countrymen, acquired a pre-eminence over all others, particularly in Bengal, though the Madras improves every year.

**COCHINEAL** continues scarce, and supports its high price, nor can a reduction be expected so long as the present troubles exist in Spanish South America; this, however, ought not to be alarming, as we have excellent substitutes in the articles of

**LAC LAKE AND LAC DYE**, imported from the British possessions in the East Indies, and which being our own products, are highly deserving of encouragement, a bright and fine scarlet, or indeed any of what are distinguished as Grain Colors can easily be produced from them at a comparatively insignificant price compared with Cochineal, and much superior as a permanent color.

**SPICES.**—There is little alteration in the prices, and the market is generally heavy. East India Ginger being scarce, has been much enquired after; 24s. have been paid for it. The taxed price of Nutmegs is to be 3d. lower than at the last sale. 220 bags of Pimento have been sold by public sale, at 9½ a 9¾ per lb.

**BALTIC PRODUCE.**—There is a considerable improvement in the demand and prices of Tallow; the general opinion is favourable to the revival of trade, and the first arrivals are already disposed of at higher prices. The demand for Hemp and Flax is also improving.

**OIL.**—In Greenland Whale Oil there is nothing doing; Sperm is heavy; the market stationary.

**IRISH AND DUTCH PROVISIONS.**—The market is very dull, yet the prices do not decline; on the contrary, it is likely that Butters will advance, as soon as the change of weather opens the navigation.

**SPIRITS.**—There is a great improvement in the demand for Rum, in anticipation of an extensive spring trade. The purchases reported are considerable. The stock is 2,692 puncheons more than at the same time last year, and the price 9d. per gallon lower. But little has been doing in Brandy; the new parcels are expected shortly at market, and it is supposed the opening price will be 3s. 2d. a 3s. 3d. Geneva is without purchasers.

**CORN.**—Owing to the frost, very little business has been done in the corn market this month; on some market days, indeed, there was scarcely a sample to be seen on the stands. The prices, as will be seen on a reference to the average, have on the whole declined.

**WOOL.**—It is a matter worthy of attention, as likely to lead in future to very important results, that the Growth of Wool in our colony of New South Wales is rapidly advancing to a degree of perfection which promises to rival the best European

production; and its abundance has already established it as a staple commodity. At a late sale it realised from 1s. 6d. to 3s. per lb. and would have sold much higher, had it been clear in its assortments.

#### HOLLAND, GERMANY, AND THE NORTH OF EUROPE.

*Amsterdam, 11 January.*—A well known house in this city, having lately experienced very considerable embarrassment from having contracted for the delivery of large quantities of corn at remote periods, a meeting was held of the most respectable merchants, at which it was resolved to oppose this dangerous mode of transacting business, and if possible entirely to suppress it. This practice they state has been carried to an enormous extent, so that bargains have very frequently been made for the purchase or sale of larger quantities of grain than were really in the magazines, or could be procured without great sacrifices; nay, in cases of the suspension of the navigation, or other unforeseen causes, more than could by any possibility be brought together; by which that important branch of commerce is turned into a gambling speculation; a kind of wager.

*Hamburg, 11 January.*—*Cotton*, little sold, but prices very firm. *Coffee*, rising, since the last account from England, and the prices very firm; but sales not extensive. *Corn*. Prices very low, and no sale but for the limited consumption of the place. *Spices*. The finer sorts without demand, but Pimento is enquired after. *Tobacco*. The present prices of most sorts very reasonable, and not likely to suffer any farther depreciation. No supplies to be expected from North America, the prices being there higher than in Europe. Our present stock is quite inadequate to the real consumption, and to the usual demand in spring. 40,000 lbs. St. Domingo leaf, of excellent quality, have been received. *Tea*. Prices very low, and worthy attention. The transactions of the Americans with Canton last year were very limited. Our stock cannot be thought very considerable, as the low prices cause a greater consumption, and more extensive demand; and we have also to supply Denmark and Sweden, which used to draw their supplies from China direct. A rise in the prices is therefore probable. *Sugars*. Refined, though dearer, have been eagerly purchased; of raw sugars and lumps only fine qualities are in demand.

*Riga, 28th Dec.*—*Flax* rather more in demand. *Corn* also rather more in demand. *Hemp* maintains its price. For rhine to be delivered on the last of May 111 with 10 per cent. down, and 112 for delivery on the last of June. *Hemp oil* for delivery ult. May, 95 roubles B. all the money down, or 105 r. with 10 per cent. down, on demand. *Potashes*. Nothing done lately. *Tallow* is rising. For yellow

crown, for delivery ult. May, 160 r. with 10 per cent. down, have been agreed to. There are also buyers at 150 r. all the money down. The import trade is at a stand, and there is little demand even for sugar and coffee.

*St. Petersburg, 14th Dec.*—*Corn and Potashes*. Nothing doing in these articles, but the prices have not declined. *Hemp*. Though the demand for rhine has rather slackened, the holders insist on their prices: that on the spot 92 to 95 r.; that for delivery 90 r. all the money down, or 94 with 20 r. down. In outshot and half rhine, nothing doing; and though the Russians still insist on high prices; the former might probably be now had at 77 r., and the latter at 67 r. *Hemp-oil*. The prices remain at 925 cops, all money down, or 975 cops with 175 cops down, but only small quantities are sold. In the interior the prices are rising. *Tallow* less doing. Yellow for delivery, offered at 140 r. all down, meets no buyers. Some white has been agreed for at 130 all down, for delivery. Soap is in vain offered at 120 r. all down, at 125 r. with 50 down, or at 130 with 30 r. down.

The demand for *Refined Sugars* is not increased, and therefore, the expected rise in price has not taken place. *Coffee* also, rather duller. Twist is in great demand. Second quality has been sold at 120 to 157 r.; best quality 155 to 170 r. part down; part at short dates. *Rum* greatly on the decline; large supplies for this market having arrived at Reval. The best is offered in vain at 150 r.; inferior is worth only 100. *Cognac* 115 to 125 r. per anchor. The best Champagne, but only the best, is much in demand, and but little here; 10½ r. per bottle are paid.

#### NEW RUSSIAN TARIFF.

Silver Roubles. Copecks.

Cotton Twist, white and dyed,  
per pood..... 2 50

#### Cotton Manufactures.

Unprinted cloths, cambricks,  
fustians.....per lb. 1 80  
Muslins and all transparent  
thin stuffs made of cotton. 1 80  
Printed cotton and chintz.... 1 40

#### Thread Manufactures.

Linen, table cloths, &c. .... 0 80  
Stockings, gloves, &c. .... 0 30  
Lace ..... 5 —  
Ditto ordinary ..... 2 50  
Silk manufacture of all de-  
scriptions ..... 1 95  
Half silk do. with cotton or  
wool ..... 0 75  
Silk do. with gold or silver .. 7 30  
Half silk do. do. do..... 3 —  
Sewing silk..... 0 16  
Worsted ..... per pood 2 —  
Earthenware ..... 1 60  
Bronze..... per lb. 2 25

|   | Silver Rubles. | Copecks. |
|---|----------------|----------|
| Cloth, under 27 wershock wide, by land.....         | 0              | 40       |
| Do. exceeding 27 wershock wide, by water.....       | 0              | 60       |
| Kerseymeres.....                                    | 0              | 60       |
| Vigonia.....  | 1              | 35       |
| Flannel, baize, gloves, stockings, carpets.....     | 0              | 20       |
| Camblets, stamets, moreens, woollen, tape, &c. .... | 0              | 40       |
| Merinos, and fine stuffs.....                       | 1              | 60       |
| Coffee.....per pood                                 | 2              | —        |
| Raw sugar.....                                      | 0              | 75       |
| Refined do. in loaves and crushed.....              | 3              | 75       |
| Liquors of all kinds remain as before.              |                |          |
| N.B. The pood is about 36 lbs.                      |                |          |

*Austrian Dominions.*—New and more liberal regulations for the encouragement of commerce are said to be in contemplation. The duties upon goods in transit will be much reduced. In general the government is very attentive to the interests of trade. A commercial treaty with Russia declares the trade on the Polish rivers free; and greatly favours the intercourse with Odessa. A similar treaty has been concluded with Prussia, respecting the Vistula and its Polish Provinces. The negotiations for the free navigation of the Elbe are carrying on at Dresden. The navigation of the Danube, and trade in Turkey, are free to the Austrian subjects,

and they never pay a higher duty than 3 per cent. The number of merchant vessels is much increased: in 1815 there were only 157 licensed vessels, and in 1818, 528 merchantmen, exclusive of coasting and fishing vessels.

*Trieste, 3 Jan.*—Our trade is improving, and we expect a great deal of business in the spring. Coffee is much in demand, and continues to rise. Sugars, Cottons, and Spices have experienced no variation, but they are expected shortly to rise. For some time there has been more frequent demand of Cotton for the Austrian manufacturers. Large arrivals are announced from North America. We are sorry we cannot give as good an account of our Corn trade. The losses lately sustained are immense.

*France.*—Some alterations in the French Customs have been announced in the Chamber of Deputies. A considerable addition is proposed to be laid on the duties upon Steel, Scythes, Files, &c. Raw and White Sugars from India are to pay the same duty as Clayed Sugar. The import duty on Mahogany to be decreased. The importation of India Silks to be prohibited. Cachemire Shawls to be admitted, on payment of a duty of 20 per cent. Some changes will be made in the export duties, for the purpose of favouring exportation.

*Spain.*—The government has issued a decree allowing the free importation of corn.

## CRITICAL NOTICES OF NEW BOOKS.

(To be continued monthly.)

1. *Lectures on the Literature of the Age of Elizabeth; delivered at the Surry Institution.* By William Hazlitt. 8vo. Stodart and Stuart.

Whatever faults Mr. Hazlitt may have, as a writer, want of meaning is not one of them. He has always something particular, and, in his view, important, to say, when he attempts to say any thing. Whether he may be deemed wrong or right in his opinions, they will always be found "cogent to the matter"—connected with the essential qualities of his subject, the fruit of thought, impelled by earnestness, and animated by feeling. We should say, judging by his style, that the wear and tear of his mind must be very considerable, and more than most people could support, for he never seems to avail himself of any thing conventional, or conveniently ready for use: the whole force

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of his intellect seems always fairly put into play to elicit his sentiments, whatever the topic may be; so that we have nothing at second-hand from his pen, and he derives little or no advantage from any of the current saws, maxims, or principles, as they are called, of an enlightened and highly-polished state of society. It is astonishing how much,—and, as some may think, how needlessly,—he increases his labour by adhering to this process. A smart contributor to our Magazine, for instance, might take up a popular, interesting subject,—fit for our "Miscellany," and calculated to improve and instruct its readers,—and he might put it in a very pleasing and prominent point of view; and yet, perhaps, through the whole ten or twelve pages, the able writer might never have seriously asked himself what he was really about, or called

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up positive conviction from its slumber, or considered any one point of doubt with that earnest exertion of the faculty of examination, which he would apply to a question, demanded of him out of doors, whether, to get to a certain street, it was necessary to take the second, or the third turning to the left?

We say that a smart contributor *could* easily do this for us; (we do not say that such things are done)—but we do not think that Mr. Hazlitt could, were he to try. Nevertheless, we have heard it said, that he writes in the *Edinburgh Review*, which puzzles us a little! It does not, however, at all puzzle us, that he should be abused in the *Quarterly*. It is difficult, indeed, to conceive, that the same period of the world's age has produced both Mr. Hazlitt and the *Review* last named! To call them each the antipodes of the other, would not convey a just idea of their excessive dissimilarity and opposition,—for antipodes would certainly come in contact, if extraneous obstacles were removed; and, perhaps, at the very moment of our thus writing, nothing but the thickness of the globe, prevents our joining soles with Mr. Hardy Vaux, or Doctor O'Halloran! But there would be no possibility of bringing Mr. Hazlitt and the *Quarterly Review* together, in any way, except by the *ears*. They have not one quality in common, but almost every possible quality in opposition; and some day we may, perhaps, try our hand at a parallel between the two, in the style of Cardinal Retz. Each of the parties has peculiar merits as well as faults,—and we wish we could pick and choose properties from the two, for our own use. What we should like most to cull from the *Quarterly*, is, we believe, its *sale*: what we should decline robbing Mr. Hazlitt of, are his *politics*. We do not think that we need have any scruple to mention these latter, though our present business is with a literary work, for the author himself does not scruple to introduce them every where, and on all occasions:—they come, like a mastiff, by his side, into all the companies he frequents,—whether of old poets, or modern players; and “love me, love my *dog*,” is his maxim. To this he sturdily adheres, in spite of any symptoms of confusion or alarm

amongst silk stockings and muslin petticoats. As we happen to have neither ourselves, we are very well inclined, so far as our own tastes go, to put up with the creature, that we may enjoy the pleasure which the talents of its master are calculated to afford.—Neither is the *Quarterly Review* without its four-footed favourite; but it is of a very different breed from Mr. Hazlitt's. It will go to kennel when bid, and fetch and carry when necessary. This animal is well-trained:—it can stand on its hind legs, and brandish a stick in its fore paws,—bark for the King,—wag its tail at a courtier,—growl at a poor man,—and leap for a morsel.

But this comparison has nothing to do with our present purpose; and the author of the work, named at the head of the article, furnishes us singly with matter enough. His criticisms have all reference to essential qualities in authors, or their works, or circumstances connected with them;—he considers the fashion of a thing as nothing in the estimate of its value; its absolute substance is alone taken by him into any account. His style is always forcible, and generally correct—never affected;—but it does not seem to us, that, in the distribution and arrangement of his subject, he is so happy, or rather, we ought to say, so careful, as he might be. He will often go on, for pages, illustrating one thought with unbounded power of allusion, imagery, and diction: he dwells upon it with gusto, varies its statement, because he has pleasure in lingering with it, makes it a hint to suggest the finest passages of the finest writers;—kindles his imagination as he proceeds with it;—becomes extravagant and hyperbolical as he doats upon it; and, at length, in an evident consciousness that he has “got into his altitudes,” resigns the reins to the humour of the moment, and, certain of the sympathy and understanding of a few select spirits, seems to think it a good joke to startle the literal capacities of the many, who are really giving him all the attention in their power to bestow, and are inclined to regard him with respect. The consequence is, (unless we are altogether mistaken in our view of his manner,) that what comes from his hand, is in general, neither complete nor exactly propor-

tioned. The extraordinary profundity, and masculine force of many of his observations, afford more than glimpses into the very depths of nature and philosophy;—but the whole piece fails to give general satisfaction, or produce conviction; the arguments being often left for the sake of a vehement sally, and the favourite points in the author's mind monopolizing much more than their due share of the discussion, while others of importance are left imperfectly noticed or wholly neglected. Those who well understand the nature of the genius from which all this proceeds, have a relish for Mr. Hazlitt's compositions, of a more intense kind than almost any other modern writing can excite:—they see, and enjoy, all the rapid changes of humour and intention, which, like clouds, pass over his mind in the course of contemplating his subject. They can discriminate the “fine partitions,” which divide his portraits from his caricatures;—their feelings correspond with his in an instant, when his serious tone runs off into irony, and the bitterness of scorn clothes itself in mildness of language, or is coupled with gaiety of remark:—but are there not much danger and positive mischief in all this, as it relates to each of the parties concerned? The entertainment, to those who can enjoy it, is it not more high-seasoned than wholesome; while, in the very nature of things, it must, and ought to be, “caviare to the million?”—Still more important is it to enquire, whether this practice of living, as it were, upon essences, be not very hurtful to the person who has adopted it; and whether the conscious indulgence of caprice, is not vastly liable to terminate in unconscious habits of sophistication?—At all events, it is certain, that whatever is wilful, is, in the same proportion, incautious and exposed,—affords much advantage to enemies, and impedes the good offices of

friends.—What we are here saying, relates almost solely to Mr. Hazlitt's style and manner. With a comprehension of innate character, absolutely unequalled by any of his contemporaries,—with a finer and more philosophical taste than any other critic on poetry and art whose name we can cite,—with an intense feeling of the pathetic, the pure, the sublime, in quality, action, and form,—he is not, we think, by any means done full justice to by people at large, and he has even laid himself, in some measure, open to a series of abuse, as weak as base, but which he might easily have deprived of the shadow of plausibility, and thus done a service both to himself and the public.

The lectures on the writers of the age of Elizabeth, were delivered at the Surry Institution; and certainly, now that literature has fairly become popular,—since it no longer rests in mighty fountains of knowledge, and vast reservoirs of learning,—but meanders, in small streams, over the whole of the land, irrigating its surface, and pleasantly refreshing its produce, no well founded objection can be urged to lectures on such subjects, any more than to Weekly Newspapers, Magazines, and Reviews. The series of Discourses, delivered by Mr. Hazlitt, at the above respectable Institution, during several seasons past, includes a set of topics, of the highest possible national as well as literary interest, and comprehends a body of criticism, equally exalted by the integrity and depth of its principles, and the glory and genius of those to whose works it is applied. Our author's manner of commenting on the great writers, that come under his examination, is precisely that which Gibbon described as the best of all others,\*—most worthy of the memory of departed genius, and giving the most undoubted testimony to the sincerity with which it is admired.—He catches the mantles

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\* “Till now,” says Gibbon, after reading the 9th chapter of Longinus, on the sublime, “I was acquainted only with two ways of criticizing a beautiful passage: the one, to shew, by an exact anatomy of it, its distinct beauties, and whence they spring; the other, an idle exclamation, or a general encomium, which leaves nothing behind it. Longinus has shewn me that there is a third. He tells me his own feelings upon reading it; and tells them with such energy that he communicates them. I almost doubt which is most sublime; Homer's Battle of the Gods, or, Longinus' Apostrophe to Terentianus upon it.”—(5th vol. Misc. Works, p. 263.)

of those, whose celestial flights he regards with devout, but undazzled eye. He lives in their time, becomes animated with their feelings, and conveys to us their spirit, in its unsullied freshness, and unquenched fire. Nothing that is common-place or unmeaning—none of the expletives of criticism—enter into his discourses: he never “bandies idle words:” the source of true beauty, the soul of poetical life, the hidden charm, the essential principle of power and efficacy, the original feature, the distinguishing property,—to these his sagacity and taste are drawn, as it were by instinct, and with these only he meddles in his expositions. There is a fervour, too, in his language, which must, we should think, have a contagious influence on the minds of his hearers: he is evidently a true worshipper of the divinity at whose altar he officiates, and nothing is so catching as zeal. He summons back the past, and places it before us in the brightness of a vision; he calls up the musical echos of its finest names, and listens to them himself in entranced delight. He chases from our hearts sordid, vain, and presumptuous sentiments, by humiliating us before the august image of departed genius and magnanimity. He renders us ashamed of ourselves, and of to-day, by spreading out, before our eyes, the great scroll of fame, and overwhelming us with its mighty volume. But what we lose as individuals, we seem to regain in a higher idea of our kind, and are not displeased to sacrifice the narrow point on which we stand, and which is fast crumbling from under our feet, for the assurance we receive, that “dark oblivion” does not close over the line of generations.—We almost think Mr. Hazlitt must have anticipated, what he will probably deem the impertinence of this article, when he wrote that fine conclusion to the lecture on Decker and Webster,—where the personal allusion to himself gives such an air of sincerity to the beauty of the language, and the touchingness of the sentiments:

Here, even here, on Salisbury plain,  
with a few old authors, I can manage  
to get through the summer or the winter  
months, without ever knowing what  
it is to feel *ennui*. They sit with me  
at breakfast; they walk out with me be-

fore dinner. After a long walk through unfrequented tracks, after starting the hare from the fern, or hearing the wing of the raven rustling above my head, or being greeted by the woodman’s “stern good-night,” as he strikes into his narrow homeward path, I can “take mine ease at mine inn,” beside the blazing hearth, and shake hands with Signor Orlando Friscobaldo, as the oldest acquaintance I have. Ben Jonson, learned Chapman, Master Webster, and Master Heywood, are there; and seated round, discourse the silent hours away. Shakspeare is there himself, not in Cibber’s manager’s coat. Spenser is hardly yet returned from a ramble through the woods, or is concealed behind a group of nymphs, fawns, and satyrs. Milton lies on the table, as on an altar, never taken up or laid down without reverence. Lyly’s Endymion sleeps with the moon, that shines in at the window; and a breath of wind, stirring at a distance, seems a sigh from the tree under which he grew old. Faustus disputes in one corner of the room, with fiendish faces, and reasons of divine astrology. Bellafront soothes Matheo, Vittoria triumphs over her judges, and old Chapman repeats one of the hymns of Homer, in his own fine translation! *I should have no objection to pass my life in this manner out of the world, not thinking of it, nor it of me; neither abused by my enemies, nor defended by my friends; careless of the future, but sometimes dreaming of the past, which might as well be forgotten!* Mr. Wordsworth has expressed this sentiment well (perhaps I have borrowed it from him)—

“Books, dreams, are both a world; and  
books, we know,  
Are a substantial world, both pure and good,  
Round which, with tendrils strong as flesh  
and blood,  
Our pastime and our happiness may grow.

Two let me mention dearer than the rest,  
The gentle lady wedded to the Moor,  
And heavenly Una with her milk-white  
lamb.

Blessings be with them and eternal praises,  
The poets, who on earth have made us heirs,  
Of truth and pure delight in deathless lays.  
Oh, might my name be number’d among  
theirs,  
Then gladly would I end my mortal days!”

I have no sort of pretension to join in the concluding wish of the last stanza; but I trust the writer feels that this aspiration of his early and highest ambition is already not unfulfilled! pp. 137, 8.

The introductory lecture is distinguished by a peculiar dignity and weight of style and observation, which render it conspicuous amongst others, and probably make it one of

the most unexceptionable of Mr. Hazlitt's compositions. After naming the age of Elizabeth, as remarkable, beyond any other, for its great men, he says—

Perhaps the genius of Great Britain (if I may so speak without offence or flattery,) never shone out fuller or brighter, or looked more like itself, than at this period. Our writers and great men had something in them, that savoured of the soil from which they grew: they were not French, they were not Dutch, or German, or Greek, or Latin; they were truly English. They did not look out of themselves to see what they should be; they sought for truth and nature, and found it in themselves. There was no tinsel, and but little art; they were not the spoiled children of affectation and refinement, but a bold, vigorous, independent race of thinkers, with prodigious strength and energy, with none but natural grace, and heartfelt unobtrusive delicacy. p. 2.

His images are, almost always, strikingly beautiful. Alluding to the companions of Shakspeare, less fortunate than himself in perpetuating their reputations, he says "they went out, one by one, *like evening lights!*"—"Shakspeare," he afterwards observes, "indeed, overlooks and commands the admiration of posterity, but he does it from the *table land* of the age in which he lived!" p. 12. What follows is so good and true that we must quote it out:—

He towered above his fellows, "in shape and gesture proudly eminent;" but he was one of a race of giants;—the tallest, the strongest, the most graceful, and beautiful of them; but it was a common and a noble brood. He was not something sacred and aloof from the vulgar herd of men, but shook hands with nature and the circumstances of the time, and is distinguished from his immediate contemporaries, not in kind, but in degree and greater variety of excellence. He did not form a class or species by himself, but belonged to a class or species. His age was necessary to him; nor could he have been wrenched from his place in the edifice of which he was so conspicuous a part, without equal injury to himself and it. Mr. Wordsworth says of Milton, that "his soul was like a star, and dwelt apart." This cannot be said with any propriety of Shakspeare, who certainly moved in a constellation of bright luminaries, and "drew after him a third part of the heavens." p. 12.

Mr. Hazlitt chastises, with merited severity, the disposition that, "would confine all excellence, or arrogate its

final accomplishment, to the present or modern times." The following passage is very characteristic of his mind:

What is, I think, as likely as any thing to cure us of this overweening admiration of the present, and unmingled contempt for past times, is the looking at the finest old pictures; at Raphael's heads, at Titian's faces, at Claude's landscapes. We have there the evidence of the senses, without the alterations of opinion or disguise of language. We there see the blood circulate through the veins, (long before it was known that it did so) the same red and white "by nature's own sweet and cunning hand laid on," the same thoughts passing through the mind and seated on the lips, the same blue sky, and glittering sunny vales, "where Pan, knit with the Graces and the Hours in dance, leads on the eternal spring." And we begin to feel, that nature and the mind of man are not a thing of yesterday, as we had been led to suppose; and that "there are more things between heaven and earth, than were ever dreamt of in our philosophy."

The last extract we shall give will be a long one, but no apology is due for that. The passage is of first-rate excellence, and the importance of its sentiments equals the eloquence of the language in which they are conveyed. Mr. Hazlitt undertakes to mention some of the causes of "such an extraordinary combination and development of fancy and genius," as existed during the period in question.

The first cause I shall mention, as contributing to this general effect, was the Reformation, which had just then taken place. This event gave a mighty impulse and increased activity to thought and inquiry, and agitated the inert mass of accumulated prejudices throughout Europe. The effect of the concussion was general; but the shock was greatest in this country. It toppled down the full-grown, intolerable abuses of centuries at a blow; heaved the ground from under the feet of bigotted faith and slavish obedience; and the roar and dashing of opinions, loosened from their accustomed hold, might be heard like the noise of an angry sea, and has never yet subsided. Germany first broke the spell of misbegotten fear, and gave the watchword; but England joined the shout, and echoed it back with her island voice, from her thousand cliffs and craggy shores, in a longer and a louder strain. With that cry, the genius of Great Britain rose, and threw down the gauntlet to the nations. There was a mighty fermentation: the waters were out; public opinion was in a state of projection.

Liberty was held out to all to think and speak the truth. Men's brains were busy; their spirits stirring; their hearts full; and their hands not idle. Their eyes were opened to expect the greatest things, and their ears burned with curiosity and zeal to know the truth, that the truth might make them free. The death-blow which had been struck at scarlet vice and bloated hypocrisy, loosened their tongues, and made the talismans and love-tokens of Popish superstition, with which she had beguiled her followers, and committed abominations with the people, fall harmless from their necks.

The translation of the Bible was the chief engine in the great work. It threw open, by a secret spring, the rich treasures of religion and morality, which had been there locked up as in a shrine. It revealed the visions of the prophets, and conveyed the lessons of inspired teachers (such they were thought) to the meanest of the people. It gave them a common interest in the common cause. Their hearts burnt within them as they read. It gave a *mind* to the people, by giving them common subjects of thought and feeling. It cemented their union of character and sentiment: it created endless diversity and collision of opinion. They found objects to employ their faculties, and a motive in the magnitude of the consequences attached to them, to exert the utmost eagerness in the pursuit of truth, and the most daring intrepidity in maintaining it. Religious controversy sharpens the understanding by the subtlety and remoteness of the topics it discusses, and braces the will by their infinite importance. We perceive in the history of this period a nervous masculine intellect. No levity, no feebleness, no indifference; or if there were, it is a relaxation from the intense activity which gives a tone to its general character. But there is a gravity approaching to piety; a seriousness of impression, a conscientious severity of argument, an habitual fervour and enthusiasm in their mode of handling almost every subject. The debates of the schoolmen were sharp and subtle enough; but they wanted interest and grandeur, and were besides confined to a few: they did not affect the general mass of the community. But the Bible was thrown open to all ranks and conditions "to run and read," with its wonderful table of contents from Genesis to the Revelations. Every village in England would present the scene so well described in Burns' *Cotter's Saturday Night*. I cannot think that all this variety and weight of knowledge could be thrown in, all at once, upon the mind of a people, and not make some impression upon it, the traces of which might be discerned in the manners and literature of the age. For, to leave more disputable points, and take only the historical

parts of the Old Testament, or the moral sentiments of the New, there is nothing like them in the power of exciting awe and admiration, or of rivetting sympathy. We see what Milton has made of the account of the Creation, from the manner in which he has treated it, imbued and impregnated with the spirit of the time of which we speak. Or what is there equal (in that romantic interest and patriarchal simplicity which goes to the heart of a country, and rouses it, as it were, from its lair in wastes and wildernesses) equal to the story of Joseph and his brethren, of Rachael and Laban, of Jacob's Dream, of Ruth and Boaz, the descriptions in the book of Job, the deliverance of the Jews out of Egypt, or the account of their captivity and return from Babylon? There is in all these parts of the Scripture, and numberless more of the same kind, to pass over the Orphic hymns of David, the prophetic denunciations of Isaiah, or the gorgeous visions of Ezekiel, an originality, a vastness of conception, a depth and tenderness of feeling, and a touching simplicity in the mode of narration, which he who does not feel, need be made of no "penetrable stuff." There is something in the character of Christ too (leaving religious faith quite out of the question) of more sweetness and majesty, and more likely to work a change in the mind of man, by the contemplation of its idea alone, than any to be found in history, whether actual or feigned. This character is that of a sublime humanity, such as was never seen on earth before, nor since. This shone manifestly both in his words and actions. We see it in his washing the Disciples' feet the night before his death, that unspeakable instance of humility and love, above all art, all meanness, and all pride, and in the leave he took of them on that occasion. "My peace I give unto you; that peace which the world cannot give, give I unto you;" and in his last commandment, that "they should love one another." Who can read the account of his behaviour on the cross, when turning to his mother he said, "Woman, behold thy son," and to the Disciple John, "Behold thy mother," and "from that hour that Disciple took her to his own home," without having his heart smote within him! We see it in his treatment of the woman taken in adultery, and in his excuse for the woman who poured precious ointment on his garment, as an offering of devotion and love, which are here all in all. His religion was the religion of the heart. We see it in his discourse with the Disciples, as they walked together towards Emmaus, when their hearts burned within them; in his Sermon from the Mount, in his parable of the good Samaritan, and in that of the Prodigal Son—in every act and word of his life, a grace, a mildness, a dignity and love, a patience

and wisdom worthy of the Son of God. His whole life and being were imbued, steeped in this word, *charity*; it was the Spring, the well-head from which every thought and feeling gushed into act; and it was this that breathed a mild glory from his face in that last agony upon the cross, "when the meek Saviour bowed his head and died," praying for his enemies. pp. 15—20.

The lines of "honest old Decker, which ought (as Mr. H. says) to embalm his memory to every one who has a sense either of religion, or philosophy, or humanity, or true genius,"—come beautifully in at the conclusion of Mr. Hazlitt's observations on this great subject:

"The best of men

That e'er wore earth about him, was a sufferer;

A soft, meek, patient, humble, tranquil spirit;

The first true gentleman that ever breathed."

We have only room to say further, that these lectures embrace all the great literary reputations, and good writers, of the age which they profess to illustrate; and are not less useful as a compendium of productions, not commonly in the hands of the bulk of readers, than amusing by their vivacity, and captivating by their energy and enthusiasm.

II. *Anecdotes, Observations, and Characters of Books and Men, &c.* By the Rev. Joseph Spence. Now first published from the Original Papers, with Notes, and a Life of the Author. By Samuel Weller Singer. Carpenter. 1820. 8vo.

*Observations, Anecdotes, and Characters of Books and Men.* By the Rev. Joseph Spence. Arranged with Notes, By the late Edmund Malone, Esq. London. Murray. 1820. 8vo.

WITH many of these anecdotes the readers of Pope, and Johnson, and Warton, have been long familiar; but the portion used by the two latter bear no proportion to the bulk, and it is desirable that they should be published entire. We should, however, like to know how it comes to pass, that, after being buried in family chests, or pilloried in well-wired shelves, during a century or nearly, two impressions stalk forth, like Gog and Magog, at one and the same instant. Carpenter's is the more copious and useful version, yet Murray's has the more classical external: but need this be told! It is not from any doubt

of its authenticity, that we express a wish that the editor of the former had disclosed to us unequivocally, whence, and by whom, the MS. was confided to him. It would, perhaps, have informed us on a point which we feel some curiosity to come at. To speak plainer,—we suspect that Mr. Malone had influence enough, when living, to keep the entire collection of these anecdotes from the press; while he doled out exclusively, in his endless appendices, addendas, and notes, those little modicums of literary history, which gave interest and value to his tedious pages. We well remember that, having occasion to consult Aubrey's "lives, &c." while they were yet in MS., we applied at the Bodleian for leave to examine them: the sight of them was withheld; and it was afterwards signified to us, as a reason for the denial, that "Mr. Malone was going to do something with them." We experienced a similar disappointment upon application at the British Museum, some years since, for the use of a little volume of "Mery Passages and Jeastes." (Harl. MS. No. 6395.) While employed upon the life of Dryden, prefixed to his prose works, Mr. Malone was favoured with the free use of Spence's Anecdotes, &c., "and he availed himself of the privilege of making a complete transcript for his own use." On this breach of confidence we shall say nothing. This transcript (after the transcriber's death?) was entrusted to Mr. William Beloe—of museum memory—who advertised a publication of the Anecdotes in two octavo volumes. How Mr. Murray's small volume was to have been forced out to such a disproportioned bulk, we know not. What, however, Malone left unfinished, Beloe might properly enough complete,—but Nisus and Euryalus both went to the shades, and the MSS. of Polymetis Spence are no longer withheld from us either by indolence or design. Aubrey's lives and letters too have also been printed.

The wealth of French literature in reflections, opinions, and anecdotes, such as the volumes before us are composed of, "comes shining off indeed," in contrast with our poverty in that entertaining class of letters, which our neighbours call *ANA.* Selden's Table Talk, Boswell's Life

of Johnson, and Aubrey's gossiping lives, are our prominent collections; to these Spence's Anecdotes form a pleasant and useful addition. They were collected by a very amiable, learned, and dispassionate man; and are given with a simplicity, and absence of all ostentation, that speak volumes in favour of their authenticity. Indeed Spence was too single-hearted to sophisticate, much less to falsify. They afford a pleasant insight to the manners and temper of many of the wits—and they were especially wits—of Anne's literary age. Pope, Bolingbroke, Ramsay, and Dean Lockier, with old Jacob Tonson, figure as some of the authors of these *memorabilia*; and their remarks upon each other, and upon their contemporaries;—their accounts of the manners and habits of Prior, Addison, Swift, and many others; and their slight but characteristic sketches,—afford a truer insight into the real characters of these eminent persons, than could be gathered from whole tomes of biography, written to set off the poet, with little knowledge of, or regard to, the man. From Spence's hint of Prior's slipping from Oxford and Bolingbroke, to pass the evening with his Chloe at a little ale-house, we have a clearer inkling of the author of *ALMA* and *HANS CARVEL*, than could be collected from the grave histories of the negociator of Utrecht:—and when we are told that "Swift lay a-bed till eleven o'clock, and thought of wit for the day,"—we are able at once to account for that depth and shrewdness, with which the Dean's slightest effusions are pregnant.

A volume of anecdotes is more fruitful in amusement than in subjects for criticism, and we shall give a few samples of the bulk of the volumes, taken, almost, *à la volée*—adding the names of the speakers.

Otway had an intimate friend, (one Blackstone) who was shot; the murderer fled towards Dover; and Otway pursued him. In his return he drank water when violently heated, and so got a fever which was the death of him.

Dennis is the authority for this account of Otway's death, which is at once creditable to the warmth of his friendship, and more satisfactory than the popular story of his having died

for want, at an ale-house on Tower-hill.

Dryden was generally an extreme sober man. For the last ten years of his life, he was much acquainted with Addison, and drank with him more than he used to do; probably so far as to hasten his end. (*Gay*.)

Lord Bolingbroke is one of the politest, as well as the greatest men in the world. He appeared careless in his talk of religion. In this he differed from Fenelon: Lord Bolingbroke outshines you, but then holds himself in, and reflects some of his own light, so as to make you appear the less inferior to him. The Archbishop never outshone; but would lead you into truths, in such a manner, that you thought you discovered them yourself. (*Ramsay*.)

Sir Isaac Newton, a little before he died, said, "I don't know what I may seem to the world, but as to myself, I seem to have been only like a boy playing on the seashore, and diverting myself in now and then finding a smoother pebble, or a prettier shell than ordinary, whilst the great ocean of truth lay all undiscovered before me." (*Ramsay*.)

When Garth had been for a good while in a bad state of health, he sent one day for a physician, with whom he was particularly intimate, and conjured him by their friendship, and by every thing that was most sacred, if there was any thing more sacred, to tell him sincerely whether he thought he should be able to get rid of his illness or not. His friend, thus conjured, told him, that he thought he might struggle on with it perhaps for some years, but that he much feared he could never get the better of it entirely. Garth thanked him for his dealing so fairly with him, and talked very cheerfully all the rest of the time he staid with him. As soon as he was gone he called for his servant, said he was a good deal out of order, and then sent him for a surgeon to bleed him. Soon after he sent for a second surgeon, by a different servant, and was bled in the other arm. He then said he wanted rest, and when every body had quitted the room, he took off the bandages, and lay down with a design of bleeding to death. His loss of blood made him faint away, and that stopped the bleeding. He afterwards sunk into a sound sleep: slept all the night, waked in the morning without his usual pains; and said that if it would continue so, he would be content to live on. In his last illness, he did not use any remedies, but let his distemper take its course. He was the most agreeable companion I ever knew. (*Mr. Townley of Townley, in Lancashire, who had this account from Garth himself*.)

Pope's character of Addison, is one of the truest, as well as one of the best things he ever wrote. Addison deserved that character the most of any man. Yet how

charming are his prose writings! He was as much a master of humour, as he was an indifferent poet. (*Dr. Lockier, Dean of Peterborough.*)

On somebody's saying of a measure proposed, that the people would never bear it, Lord Oxford's answer was, "You don't know how far the good people of England will bear." (*Pope.*)

*Kneller.* "Did you ever hear Sir Godfrey's dream?" "No." "Why then I'll tell it you. A night or two ago, (said Sir Godfrey) I had a very odd sort of dream. I dreamt that I was dead, and soon after found myself walking in a narrow path that led up between two hills, rising pretty equally on each side of it. Before me I saw a door, and a great number of people about it. I walked on toward them. As I drew nearer, I could distinguish St. Peter by his keys, with some other of the apostles; they were admitting the people as they came next the door. When I had joined the company, I could see several seats, every way, at a little distance within the door. As the first, after my coming up, approached for admittance, St. Peter asked his name, and then his religion. I am a Roman Catholic, replied the spirit. Go in, then, says St. Peter, and sit down on those seats there, on the right hand. The next was a Presbyterian; he was admitted too, after the usual questions, and ordered to sit down on the seats opposite to the other. My turn came next, and as I approached, St. Peter very civilly asked me my name. I said it was Kneller. I had no sooner said so, than St. Luke (who was standing just by) turned toward me, and said, with a great deal of sweetness—"What, the famous Sir Godfrey Kneller, from England?" "The very same, Sir, (says I) at your service." On this St. Luke immediately drew near to me, embraced me, and made me a great many compliments on the art we had both of us followed in this world: he entered so far into the subject, that he seemed almost to have forgot the business for which I came thither. At last, however, he recollected himself, and said, "I beg your pardon, Sir Godfrey; I was so taken up with the pleasure of conversing with you! But, apropos, pray, Sir, what religion may you be of?" "Why truly, Sir, (says I) I am of no religion." "O Sir, (says he) you will be so good then as to go in, and take your seat where you please." (*Pope.*)

It is well known that the Chevalier Ramsay, author of the *Travels of Cyrus*, was brought up in the family of Fenelon, and these pages contain many remarks from Ramsay's pen, illustrative of the incomparable temper and conduct of that exemplary prelate: but Pope is by far the most prominent person in the volumes; and it is due

to his just fame, which has been liberally traduced by open foes and insidious friends, that these representations of an amiable and honest man who knew him thoroughly, *intus et in cute novit*, should publicly vindicate him from unmerited vituperation. Pope's last editor says, "he trembles for every character, when he hears any thing of Spence's Anecdotes.—Neither friend nor foe is spared." This, if it were true, would prove the candour of the compiler; but it is a gross misrepresentation of a volume which the writer had not examined; and it would have been but kind if Mr. Bowles had reserved some of these amiable tremblings, for the reputation of an author, of whose works he had undertaken the revision, but whose character and writings he seizes every opportunity to degrade, by gross insinuations and flippant sarcasm. How different was the conduct of Spence, a man of refined taste, and very considerable literary attainments; who, admiring the writings of Pope, became desirous of personal acquaintance with that eminent man. Upon a more intimate knowledge, he found, like Thomson,

Although not sweeter his own Homer sung,  
Still was his life the more delightful theme:  
and the joint impression induced him to keep a daily record of whatever was remarkable in the poet's conversation, and that of his associates; as well as minutes of his manners and habits. These represent Pope in private life, as uniformly gentle, amiable, and warm in his friendships, and of moral habits unimpeached, and (as we believe) unimpeachable. These testimonies to the worth and virtue of the poet, not consorting with the purpose of Mr. Bowles, he has preferred the representations of Pope's enemies; and having, with an obliquity unexampled in an editor, resolved to asperse the moral reputation of his author, it was necessary that he should affect to sneer at the friendly representations of a chronicler, actuated by feelings so unlike his own. The general defamation of Pope's character, Mr. Bowles only shares with Curl, and Gildon, and Welstead, and Weston; but the inquisition which he has instituted into the poet's attachment to Martha Blount, is eminently his own; and though the pruriency with which his

nose is laid to the ground, to scent some taint in their connexion, and the anatomical minuteness with which he examines and determines on the physical constitution of Pope, might, in charity, be deemed only unseemly or unbecoming in a layman, and occasional critic,—in an editor and a clergyman such conduct appears to us indecent and insufferably disgusting.

There is a good deal in these volumes on the subject of Addison's habits and disposition, with which we shall not meddle on this occasion. There is a great deal more, and much that is still new, illustrative of Pope's youthful habits and pursuits; his share with Swift, Gay, and others, in unappropriated works, which, for want of this information, are still attributed to each individually. There is also a great variety of anecdotes concerning his friends and companions, and a good deal of curious criticism, from Pope's pen, on his contemporaries, and his predecessors in the art to which his life was devoted. The former is more interesting, the latter more correct. It is indeed certain, from his imitations of the early poets alone, that Pope was but imperfectly acquainted with the peculiar characteristics of the ancient bards, and his critical opinions confirm that conviction. Few persons will now think with Pope, that Ben Jonson's works, taken altogether, are but trash; or that Shakspeare's dramatic style is a bad one: that Cartwright and Cleveland "are equally good or equally bad," and that Downe is superior as a poet to Randolph. All his censures are not, however, so questionable. His judgment of Spenser, whom he read early in life, and late too, as he understood him better, is far more correct. His prejudice against blank verse, he never attempted to conceal; and his observations here on the use of it by Milton, we shall match with another still more curious and decisive.

"I have nothing to say for rhyme, but that I doubt whether a poem can support itself without it, in our language, unless it be stiffened with such strange words as are likely to destroy our language itself. The high style, that is affected so much in blank verse, would not have been borne, even in Milton, had not his subject turned so much on such strange out-of-the-world things as it does."

Voltaire says, writing to Horace Walpole—"Je demandois un jour à Pope, pourquoi Milton, n'avoit pas rimé son poëme, dans le temps que les autres poëtes rimoient leurs poëmes, à l'imitation des Italiens; il me répondit: *Because he could not.*"

III. *An Essay on the Dramatic Character of Sir John Falstaff. By Maurice Morgann, Esq. formerly Under Secretary of State.* Boys.

Mr. Morgann, to whom we owe this very original and admirable essay, was one of those who write rather for their own gratification, than with an eye to public fame. Within the circle of his friends, he was estimated as a man of uncommon powers: beyond it, he does not seem to have been much known as an author, or desirous of being so. Before his death, which took place on the 28th of March, 1802, in the seventy-seventh year of his age, he ordered that, when such an event might happen, his papers should be indiscriminately destroyed by his executors:—the order was obeyed, and thus, says Dr. Symmons, "were lost various compositions in politics, metaphysics, and criticism, which would have planted a permanent laurel on his grave."

His public and private life are said, by those who knew him, to have been impelled by the love of liberty and virtue. His office of Under Secretary of State he held when the late Marquis of Lansdown was, for the first time, in power; and he was subsequently sent by that nobleman across the Atlantic, as the intended legislator of Canada. "His mind, fraught with the love of truth and inquiry, never yielded to the apathy of repose, or the indolence of careless dissipation: his leisure hours were therefore often employed on literary subjects; and, amongst his compositions, have been particularly noticed his 'Remarks on the Slave Trade,' and his 'Essay on the Character of Sir John Falstaff.' In the first will be found the seeds of most of those arguments which have since been so successfully urged in favour of the rights of humanity; and in the latter, the spirit of the poet himself, breathing through his commentator." *Preface*, pp. vii. viii.

Of this latter essay,—with the praise given to which we fully

agree,—he had been in vain importuned to prepare a second edition: it has now been republished, “from a conviction that to rescue so happy an effort of genius from the unmerited obscurity in which it has been involved by the silent progress of time, would be an acceptable service rendered to the lover of literature. A work more distinguished by *originality* and nice discrimination has seldom appeared.” Doctor Symonds, already quoted, joins in these testimonies to the striking merit of the performance in question:—“This essay forms a more honourable monument to the memory of Shakspeare, than any which has been reared to him by the united labours of his commentators. The portrait of which I have exhibited only a part, is drawn with so just, so discriminating, and so vivid a pencil, as to be unequalled, unless it be by the celebrated delineation of the same great dramatist from the hand of Dryden.” *Life of Milton.*

We do not think that there is any thing overstated in these eulogiums. The work bears all the marks of coming from a strong mind and rich imagination. The feeling for Shakspeare, which it evinces, is not of an extravagant or fantastical character, yet it is deep, intense, and unequivocal. The Author shews himself penetrated by the spirit of this immortal writer, and qualified to enter, within the veil, to adore his genius in its most retired and sacred seats. “The vindication of Falstaff’s courage,” he says,—

“—is truly no otherwise the object, than some old fantastic oak, or grotesque rock, may be the object of a morning’s ride; yet, being proposed as such, may serve to limit the distance, and shape the course. The real object is exercise, and the delight which a rich, beautiful, picturesque, and, perhaps, unknown country, may excite from every side.” *Author’s Preface.*

There is quite as much feeling as subtlety evinced in the argument by which he endeavours to stem, and turn back, the whole current of public prejudice, and to establish, in the teeth of what has hitherto appeared universal acknowledgment, that fat Jack, though “not John of Gaunt,” was “yet no coward, Hal!” Whatever verdict may be returned on this question,—and we confess that the Au-

thor has gained us on his side,—there can be no doubt entertained of the general justice, and peculiar happiness, of his strictures on Falstaff’s character,—one of the most wonderful of the many wonderful creations, which we owe to the same inscrutable genius. Our Author is just metaphysical enough to be sound, and not sufficiently so to be tiresome; and the great principles of nature furnish the clue by which he travels through the meanderings and mazes of a labyrinth, such as Shakspeare only could have laid out,—where the rules of order and of just connexion are so combined and employed, as to produce the effect of a puzzle to our understandings, whilst they charm and satisfy our feelings. “Falstaff is a character,” says our Author,

“Made up by Shakspeare wholly of incongruities;—a man at once young and old, enterprising and fat, a dupe and a wit, harmless and wicked, weak in principle and resolute by constitution, cowardly in appearance and brave in reality; a knave without malice, a liar without deceit; and a knight, a gentleman, and a soldier, without either dignity, decency, or honour: this is a character, which, though it may be decomposed, could not, I believe, have been formed, nor the ingredients of it duly mingled, upon any receipt whatever: it required the hand of Shakspeare himself to give to every particular part a relish of the whole, and of the whole, to every particular part;—alike the same incongruous, identical, Falstaff, whether, to the grave Chief Justice, he vainly talks of his youth, and offers to *caper for a thousand*; or cries to Mrs. Doll, “*I am old, I am old,*” though she is seated on his lap, and he is courting her for busses.”

The general principle of his vindication of Falstaff’s courage, or rather of the denial of his cowardice, is to be gathered from the following passage:—

“It may not be easy for the reader to resolve how it comes about, that whilst we look upon Falstaff as a character of the like nature with that of Parolles or of Bobadil, we should preserve for *him* a great degree of respect and good-will, and yet feel the highest disdain and contempt of the others, though they are all involved in similar situations. The readers, I believe, would wonder extremely to find either Parolles or Bobadil possess himself in dangers: what then can be the cause that we are not at all surprised at the gaiety and ease of Falstaff under the most trying circumstances; and that we never think of charging Shakspeare

with departing, on this account, from the truth and coherence of character? Perhaps, after all, the *real* character of Falstaff may be different from his *apparent* one; and, possibly, this difference between reality and appearance, whilst it accounts at once for our liking and our censure, may be the true point of humour in the character, and the source of all our laughter and delight. We may chance to find, if we will but examine a little into the nature of those circumstances which have accidentally involved him, that he was intended to be drawn as a character of much natural courage and resolution; and be obliged, thereupon, to repeal those decisions which may have been made upon the credit of some general, though inapplicable, propositions; the common source of error in other and higher matters. A little reflection may perhaps bring us round again to the point of our departure, and unite our understandings to our instinct.—Let us then for a moment *suspend* at least our decisions, and candidly and coolly inquire if Sir John Falstaff be, indeed, what he has so often been called by critic and commentator, male and female,—a *constitutional coward*."

More comprehensive, and perhaps for that reason more convincing, is the following masterly sketch of the general character of Falstaff.

"To me, then, it appears, that the leading quality in Falstaff's character, and that from which all the rest take their colour, is a high degree of wit and humour, accompanied with great natural vigour and alacrity of mind. This quality, so accompanied, led him probably very early into life, and made him highly acceptable to society; so acceptable, as to make it seem unnecessary for him to acquire any other virtue. Hence perhaps, his continued debaucheries and dissipations of every kind.—He seems, by nature, to have had a mind free from malice or any evil principle; but he never took the trouble of acquiring any good one. He found himself esteemed and beloved with all his faults; nay, *for* his faults, which were all connected with humour, and for the most part grew out of it. As he had, possibly, no vices but such as he thought might be openly professed, so he appeared more dissolute through ostentation. To the character of wit and humour, to which all his other qualities seem to have conformed themselves, he appears to have added a very necessary support, *that* of the profession of a *soldier*. He had from nature, as I presume to say, a spirit of boldness and enterprise; which in a military age, though employment was only occasional, kept him always above contempt, secured him an honourable reception among the great, and suited best both with his particular mode of humour and of vice. Thus

living continually in society, nay even in taverns, and indulging himself, and being indulged by others, in every debauchery; drinking, women, gluttony, and ease; assuming a liberty of fiction, necessary perhaps to his wit, and often falling into falsity and lies; he seems to have set, by degrees, all sober reputation at defiance; and finding eternal resources in his wit, he borrows, shifts, defrauds, and even robs, without dishonour.—Laughter and approbation attend his greatest excesses; and, being governed visibly by no settled bad principle or ill design, fun and humour account for and cover all. By degrees, however, and through indulgence, he acquires bad habits, becomes a humourist, grows enormously corpulent, and falls into the infirmities of age; yet never quits, all the time, one single levity or vice of youth, or loses any of that cheerfulness of mind, which had enabled him to pass through this course with ease to himself and delight to others; and thus, at last, mixing youth and age, enterprise and corpulency, wit and folly, poverty and expense, title and buffoonery, innocence as to purpose, and wickedness as to practice; neither incurring hatred by bad principle, nor contempt by cowardice, yet involved in circumstances productive of imputation in both; a butt and a wit, a humourist and a man of humour, a touchstone and a laughing stock, a jester and a jest; has Sir John Falstaff, taken at that period of his life in which we see him, become the most perfect comic character that perhaps ever was exhibited."

We cannot follow our Author into the particulars of the evidence which he brings to bear on the general question. It is most ingeniously cited, and applied, and always answers the excellent purpose of eliciting more fully the character, and leading through a greater variety of its beauties and treasures. Our only object is to quote from the work some of its striking passages, to attract the reader's attention towards what must afford him an exquisite intellectual feast, if he be one worthy, "to speak the tongue that Shakspeare spake."

The following morsel runs in another vein from those we have hitherto cited; but surely it is not less masterly or impressive. If Falstaff had but possessed any of that cardinal virtue called prudence, says our Author,

"—alike the guardian of virtue and the protector of vice; that quality, from the possession or the absence of which, the character and fate of men in this life take, I think, their colour, and not from real vice

or virtue ; if he had spurred and rode the world with his wit, instead of suffering the world, boys and all, to ride him ;—he might, without any other essential change, have been the admiration, and not the jest of mankind : or if he had lived in our day, and instead of attaching himself to one Prince, had renounced *all* friendship and *all* attachment, and had let himself out as the ready instrument and zany of every successive minister, he might possibly have acquired the high honour of marking his shroud, or decorating his coffin, with the living rays of an Irish, at least, if not a British, coronet : instead of which, though enforcing laughter from every disposition, he appears, now, as a character which every wise man will pity and avoid, every knave will censure, and every fool will fear : and accordingly, Shakspeare, ever true to nature, has made Harry desert, and Lancaster censure him :—he dies, where he lived, in a tavern, broken-hearted, without a friend ; and his final exit is given up to the derision of fools. Nor have his misfortunes ended here ; the scandal arising from the misapplication of his wit and talents seems immortal. He has met with as little justice or mercy from his final judges, the critics, as from his companions of the drama. With our cheeks still red with laughter, we ungratefully, as unjustly, censure him as a coward by nature, and a rascal upon principle : though, if this were so, it might be hoped, for our own credit, that we should behold him rather with disgust and disapprobation, than with pleasure and delight."

In an article, placed near the commencement of our present number, we refer the reader to our notice of this work, for what may be read as a continuation of the subject which is there treated of. We submit to him the following in this light :—

"Shakspeare is a name so interesting, that it is excusable to stop a moment, nay it would be indecent to pass him without the tribute of some admiration. He differs essentially from all other writers ; him, we may profess rather to feel than to understand ; and it is safer to say, on many occasions, that we are possessed by him, than that we possess him. And no wonder ;—he scatters the seeds of things, the principles of character and action, with so cunning a hand, yet with so careless an air ; and, master of our feelings, submits himself so little to our judgment, that every thing seems superior. We discern not his course, we see no connection of cause and effect, we are rapt in ignorant admiration, and claim no kindred with his abilities. All the incidents, all the parts, look like chance, whilst we feel and are sensible that the whole is design. His characters not only act and

speak in strict conformity to nature, but in strict relation to us ; just so much is shewn as is requisite, just so much is impressed ; he commands every passage to our heads and to our hearts, and moulds us as he pleases, and that with so much ease, that he never betrays his own exertions. We see these characters act from the mingled motives of passion, reason, interest, habit, and complexion, in all their proportions, when they are supposed to know it not themselves ; and we are made to acknowledge that their actions and sentiments are, from those motives, the necessary result. He at once blends and distinguishes every thing ;—every thing is complicated, every thing is plain. I restrain the farther expressions of my admiration, lest they should not seem applicable to man ; but it is really astonishing that a mere human being, a part of humanity only, should so perfectly comprehend the whole ; and that he should possess such exquisite art, that, whilst every woman and every child shall feel the whole effect, his learned Editors and Commentators should yet so very frequently mistake, or seem ignorant of the cause. A sceptre or a straw are, in his hands, of equal efficacy ; he needs no selection ; he converts every thing into excellence ; nothing is too great, nothing is too base. Is a character efficient, like Richard, it is every thing we can wish : is it otherwise, like Hamlet, it is productive of equal admiration : action produces one mode of excellence, and inaction another : the Chronicle, the Novel, or the Ballad ; the king or the beggar, the hero, the madman, the sot, or the fool ; it is all one ;—nothing is worse, nothing is better : the same genius pervades and is equally admirable in all. Or, is a character to be shewn in progressive change, and the events of years comprised within the hour ;—with what a magic hand does he prepare and scatter his spells ! The understanding must, in the first place, be subdued ; and, lo ! how the rooted prejudices of the child spring up to confound the man ! The Weird sisters rise, and order is extinguished : the laws of nature give way, and leave nothing in our minds but wildness and horror. No pause is allowed us for reflection : horrid sentiment, furious guilt and compunction, air-drawn daggers, murders, ghosts, and enchantment, shake and *possess us wholly*. In the mean time, the *process* is completed. Macbeth changes under our eye ; *the milk of human kindness is converted to gall ; he has supped full of horrors, and his May of life is fallen into the sear, the yellow leaf ; whilst we, the fools of amazement, are insensible to the shifting of place and the lapse of time, and, till the curtain drops, never once wake to the truth of things, or recognize the laws of existence.*"

Well and truly, then, does our Author predict that,

"—when the hand of time shall have brushed off his present Editors and Commentators, and when the very name of Voltaire, and even the memory of the language in which he has written, shall be no more, the Apalachian mountains, the banks of the Ohio, and the plains of Sciota, shall resound with the accents of this barbarian: in his native tongue, he shall roll the genuine passions of nature; nor shall the griefs of Lear be alleviated, or the charms and wit of Rosalind be abated, by time."

IV. *Memoires pour servir à l'Histoire* &c.:—*Memoirs of the private Life, Return, and Reign, of Napoleon, in 1815.* By M. Fleury de Chaboulon, Ex-Secretary of the Emperor Napoleon, &c. Murray, 1820.

We happen to have had occasion to mention the name of Napoleon pretty often in our present number; but we do not know that any apology is necessary for this. It is a name that can never be devoid of interest, as indicating one whose character and history render him the most extraordinary person of his age. Perhaps in no age whatever, has any other individual performed so much, and failed so remarkably: made himself so entirely master of events, and become so utterly their victim: caused so lively an immediate impression on the senses and interests of his contemporaries, and left so few traces of his own personal character, and the system of his power, in the public institutions, and public spirit of the period. No previous conqueror, or innovator, that we know of, has ever effected such extensive changes, built so wide an edifice of authority, or founded so many connecting external supports. Of all this, however, not one stone now remains upon another: all has vanished, like the enchanted house of Aladin, which, in the evening, the king saw towering in its pride and splendour, but which had melted, before morning, into "thin air." Not one of his dynasties has taken root: not one member of his family appears in any public capacity: their places of abode are obscure and uncertain,—their pursuits unknown,—their names changed or avoided. He is himself a hopeless prisoner, complaining, and with perhaps reason for complaint. One of his most signal triumphs,—his alliance with the family of Austria,—is

now made the cause of what he probably feels as the bitterest of his calamities. And all this ruin has fallen upon him without any inroad of general devastation taking place:—scarcely any of his followers, friends, or instruments have been consumed or swallowed up in the convulsion: they are left to their reflections, and their fallen fortunes. The first measures of severity put in force against them, have, by degrees, been discontinued; and the members of his family have been spared their wealth, while they have been reduced to insignificance.

A dispersion and disappearance of this nature; so utter, so easy, and so final, have no precedent in history, in immediate succession to power so ample, and connexions so extended. The thing has passed away like a shadow, it has burst like a bubble; it has not fallen by natural destruction, but vanished like an illusion.

This circumstance, we think, connects itself with a peculiarity in the conduct and character of Napoleon, which has an important bearing on the degree of fame that is justly due to him, as an adventurer or hero. It has been said of him, that his faults do not exceed those that have usually belonged to the great men of history—those, at least, whose greatness consists rather in success than in virtue;—and that, in genius, he is fully equal to any of these. Now, we apprehend, that all persons of this stamp, who have acquired durable reputation, and fixed their memories as never-dying lights in the constellation of honour, have effected one of two things:—they have either made themselves masters at once of the intellect and feeling of their age, and given it altogether a new character, and new pursuits; impressing it, as it were, with the signet of their own dispositions, and setting the fashion of its thought and habits after their own tastes, and in conformity to their own views;—or they have taken advantage of the popular current, floated with it, but above it, and made use of its force and velocity for the purpose of gaining more quickly and surely their ends and objects. Certain it is, that no power has endured, which has not either accorded with the spirit of the period, or created it: and it is equally certain

that history awards the first honours of enterprise to none of those disturbers of a moment, whose exploits have only flashed across society with a hasty and soon-extinguished brightness, like the brief sparkle of the northern streamer. Napoleon Buonaparte stands in this latter predicament: his actions, and his systems of government and education, have been diametrically opposed to the intelligence, desires, and opinions of general society at the time of his appearance. His great success was gained during an instant when the play of these was suspended, and a momentary counteraction to its force had been rendered necessary by its previous violence. The influence he gained was exerted to repress all the natural tendencies of mankind in the progress of knowledge, and under the excitement of experience. By dexterously employing a false and artificial sentiment, easily kindled amidst a superficial and heartless, but vivacious and active nation, he did wonders in the way of momentary effect:—but every thing he reared seems to have been without foundation; nothing planted by his hand seems to have taken root.—The motives of interest he well knew how to suggest and use,—but over the mind and heart of the age he appears to have exercised no influence whatever; and its natural bias, returning with the force of a spring, has pitched him, and his, far off from the face of affairs, so that the place that knew them once now knows them no longer. The military spirit was opposed by Buonaparte to the spirit of liberty: he was able to give to the former a temporary prevalence in fact, but, since the days of chivalry are gone,—(and he did much to prevent their recurrence) it must be impossible to raise this spirit again to sway over the higher fancies and feelings of the soul, or to rule in sovereignty over the honours of society. In literature and education, the influence of Napoleon was equally unnatural, and has been equally temporary. He has imparted no character to either, but the regulations he imposed on both were felt by both to be burthensome and galling, and they have been flung off on the first opportunity. His age, therefore, has rejected him; and by

its spirit he has been conquered. His friends, or those whom discontent causes to claim the name, espouse a cause very different from his while they regret his discomfiture: the truth is, we believe, that their regret is impelled by feelings which cannot be rendered public, and that it is therefore justified on principles which have no application to the case.

Of Louis XIV. it has been said, that he gave to the French character, a calm movement, even in the flow of vivacity and pleasure,—a quality not very easily expressed, but sufficiently apparent, which conferred dignity and consistency on the public manners, and proceeded directly from the personal influence of the monarch. His character was unique and to himself, but it became the “glass of fashion, and the mould of form,” to others. One of his eulogists maintains, and with a good deal of fact to support the panegyric, that, the moment it was permitted him to become king, he developed his personal character, and gave birth to great events. Great men began to rise in the light of the crown: arts and pleasures displayed their graceful forms amidst the smoke of battles: an imposing air of regularity and pomp was shed over luxury and voluptuousness, and a splendour was cast from the throne over all the public institutions, and society generally, which subdued more effectually than force, and which, while it announced power, created and extended it.—We do not think that so captivating a description of the influence of Napoleon as a ruler, could possibly be given, with an equal degree of justice: more particularly as that of Louis XIV. fairly entered into the national habits, and for a long time fixed the national character, while no vestiges of Napoleon’s remain, except in a few smouldering embers of hatred and selfishness, which a better system is fast treading out.

We have rather chosen to offer these few general observations, than to enter on a narrative of the contents of this new work,—which is, nevertheless, the most respectable that has yet appeared on its subject. The author was private secretary to the Ex-emperor, and appears to have been entirely in his confidence. As

a document, for his torical purposes, it may be considered very valuable; but to appreciate the justice of its judgments would have required criticism which we do not choose to apply to the production of a foreigner, written under the peculiar circumstances of the case:—and for the purposes of amusement our extracts must have been longer than we can at present find room for. We recommend it, however, to our readers, as the most interesting and complete account of the most interesting period in the life and career of the extraordinary person whom the author served. All the details relative to the return from Elba, are given with great spirit, and many important points of fact are placed in a new, and doubtless accurate light. The few days of sovereignty enjoyed by

Napoleon after the battle of Waterloo, present a sad and gloomy picture:—it was then that Napoleon became the victim of that which had been hitherto his slave. Faction now raised her hydra head against him: he was encompassed by traitors; his friends became unable to serve him, and he and they saw all the inevitableness of the approaching destruction. After his abdication the gloom thickens, and our sympathies are excited on his side. This is partly occasioned by the meanness and baseness of those by whom he was thwarted and circumvented. Fouché figures conspicuously among these,—and all that relates to this man is, in the highest degree, curious. The remarks on the conduct of England are such as might be expected from one in the author's situation.

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#### LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC INTELLIGENCE, &c.

Mr. Haydon's Picture of Christ's Triumphant Entry into Jerusalem, is announced, by the public journals, to be intended for exhibition in the present season. A very high degree of expectation is excited by this announcement, in the breasts of all judges and admirers of the noble art, in the practice of which Mr. Haydon is already so distinguished.

Mr. Samuel Reynolds, of Bayswater, the first mezzotinto engraver in this or any other country, is about to publish a work of the greatest possible attraction to all persons of elegant taste, and who combine national feeling and curiosity with the admiration of talent, and a love of the beautiful imitations of the most beautiful objects. The works of Sir Joshua Reynolds have become a species of national property, and they certainly form not the least valuable part of it. Their immense number and variety include history, portrait, and poetical subjects. The respectability of the artist's personal character, and his unrivalled eminence in his profession, procured him opportunities of commemorating with his pencil all the most distinguished individuals of his period, whether they were remarkable in the ranks of politics, fashion, or gallantry; and, in this way, their series leads the mind of the observer, by the power of association, through the most interesting paths of the country's history, and amongst the most brilliant scenes of its society. One thing further is worthy of observation:—such a collection is *unique* in its character, which is strictly and peculiarly national. In France, the women of fashion have left be-

hind them their love-letters, and chronicles of their intrigues: the statesmen and wits, their bon-mots and verses:—but a vast gallery (for so we may term it) of portraits, constituting the visible great, and gay world of a long and flourishing age, executed by one man, and he the idol of the circles whom he has thus perpetuated for the delight of posterity, belongs only to England. It may be considered as forming part of its manners, and belonging conspicuously to its social distinctions; for it could only have emanated from the extreme closeness and reality of its friendly connexions, the genuine cast of its intimacies, and the private opulence and regard to public appearance, which characterize its social history.—Mr. Reynolds has undertaken to engrave this vast collection, and has already prepared for publication a very large proportion of it. Nothing can be finer than the execution of the plates; and the plan of the enterprise is such, as to combine compactness and convenience with complete justice to the extent of the collection. A Number will be published monthly, each containing six plates. One of these will always be a portrait never before engraved. Another of the plates, in each number, will contain six portraits, selected by the artist from amongst the pictures most adapted for this sort of arrangement, and of these small heads nothing can exceed the extreme beauty. The other four plates will be single subjects,—so that eleven subjects, in all, must be included in every number, the price of which, for common impressions, is fixed, we believe, at one guinea.

In the *Edinburgh Philosophical Journal*, we find an interesting account of a remarkable and striking phenomenon, which was witnessed by his Majesty's ship *Minden*, in 1814, when between the north end of Sumatra and the Nicobar Islands, and also again between that line and Prince of Wales' Island. None of these places, however, were in sight, and there were no soundings. The phenomenon in question is known by the name of *ripples*, but, in this instance, the sea, though the weather was calm, and the water deep, was agitated with uncommon fury. Some of these ripples were heard several miles off, and advanced towards the ship, boiling and foaming in an extraordinary manner. The more violent ones actually shook the ship in a considerable degree. Their effect during the night was prodigious and appalling. At first a low hollow sound was heard, like that caused by surf on a distant coast; it gradually became louder and louder,—till at length a long foaming streak was discovered advancing rapidly towards the ship, which it soon surrounded, and all was noise and commotion. This lasted for a few minutes, when the ripple moved to the north-east; its sound became fainter and fainter; and it often happened that just as one ceased to be heard, another was perceived, and so on, during the night. The cause of these remarkable temporary appearances, does not seem to be well understood. The effect of particular currents, and that of the meeting of waves from different oceans, as well as of streams of wind opposing each other in their direction, have all been suggested, as affording the means of an explanation, which has not yet been satisfactorily given.

In the same *Journal* we find a curious account of the celebrated slide of Alpnach, which was constructed upon Mount Pilate, in the Canton of Underwald, for the purpose of procuring the fine timber growing on the precipices, and in the gorges of that vast mountain, which, it had been thought, rendered all access impossible. This ingenious and daring contrivance was the work of Mr. Rupp, engineer of Suabia. "For many centuries, the rugged flanks and the deep gorges of Mount Pilatus were covered with impenetrable forests. Lofty precipices encircled them on all sides. Even the daring hunters were scarcely able to reach them, and the inhabitants of the valley had never conceived the idea of disturbing them with the axe. These immense forests were therefore permitted to grow and to perish, without being of the least utility to man, till a foreigner, conducted into their wild recesses in the pursuit of the chamois, was struck with wonder at the sight, and directed the attention of several Swiss gentlemen to the extent and value of the timber. The slide of Alpnach was formed entirely of about 25,000 large pine trees, deprived of their bark, and united together in a very in-

genious manner, without the aid of iron. It occupied about 160 workmen during eighteen months, and cost nearly 100,000 francs, or £4,250. It was about three leagues, or 44,000 English feet long, and terminated in the Lake of Lucerne. Mr. Rupp, in executing his arduous undertaking, had to contend, not only with the gigantic and sublime obstacles of nature, but with the stupid prejudices of the peasantry. He was supposed to have communion with the devil, he was charged with heresy, and every obstacle was thrown in the way of an enterprise, which they regarded as absurd and impracticable. All these difficulties, however, were surmounted, and he had at last the satisfaction of observing the trees descend from the mountains with the rapidity of lightning. The larger pines, which were about 100 feet long, and ten inches thick, at their smallest extremity, ran through the space of three leagues, or nearly nine miles, in *two minutes and a half*, and during their descent, they appeared to be only a few feet in length. We regret to add, that this magnificent structure no longer exists, and that scarcely a trace of it is to be seen on the flanks of Mount Pilatus. Political circumstances having taken away the principal source of the demand for timber, and no other market having been found, the operation of cutting and transporting the trees necessarily ceased."

Mr. Ormerod's *History of the County Palatine and City of Chester*, is now completed.

It has been published in ten parts, forming three folio volumes, embellished by 194 engravings on copper and on wood, exclusive of 357 armorial subjects which are attached to the pedigrees.

GERMAN literature has been very much cultivated of late years in Sweden. Exclusive of a collection of classical German authors printed at Upsal, in the original language (sixty-six volumes in the whole), the best works of various authors have been translated into Swedish.

M. de Lalande, associate naturalist to the king's garden, Paris, has just set out on his travels to the Cape of Good Hope, where he will pursue his researches in botany, zoology, and the various departments of natural history. From thence he will proceed to India to prosecute the ulterior objects of his mission in the Indian Seas.

A new method of putting animals to death without pain has been proposed by Dr. Thornton; in consequence of the employment of which, it is said, the meat would look better, last better, keep better, and salt better. These desiderata are proposed to be attained by means of fixed air.

Mr. Curtis, the aurist, will commence his winter course of lectures on the anatomy, physiology, and pathology of the ear, early this month: a clinical lecture will be given during the course, on the most important cases that have occurred at the Royal Dispensary, in which Mr. C. will adduce some observations on the medical treatment of deaf and dumb children.

Sir Humphry Davy has written from Rome that of the number of MSS. found in the ruins of Herculaneum, and which have been there enclosed during 1696 years, 88 have been unrolled and are now legible. There are 319 utterly destroyed, 24 have been given away as presents. It is hoped that from 100 to 120 may yet be saved out of 1265 MSS. that remain to be unrolled and deciphered, by means of a chemical operation, which will cost about 5,000*l*.

A manuscript of undoubted authenticity has just reached this country, which is calculated to excite an extraordinary degree of interest. It is already in the hands of a translator, and will be published, both in English and in the original French, in the course of the ensuing month; it is entitled "*Documents Historiques, et Reflexions sur le Gouvernement de la Hollande—par Louis Bonaparte, Ex-Roi de Hollande.*" This work contains every event relating to the political or financial situation of Holland, from the commencement of the reign of Louis until the close of his government—Sketches of the invasion of Italy and expedition in Egypt, in both of which the author was present—Relations of most of the important events in Spain, and his refusal of the crown of that kingdom—The hitherto secret motives of the marriage of the author with the daughter of the Empress Josephine, and their subsequent mutual agreement to a separation—The events which occurred on the separation of the Emperor Napoleon and the Empress Josephine—The various princesses proposed to Napoleon, and the reason of his selecting the daughter of the Emperor of Austria—Numerous characteristic and highly interesting letters from Napoleon to the author, exposing his views, situation, and purposes—An indisputable genealogical history of the family of Bonaparte, extracted from various histories of Italy and other public documents, all of which prove beyond doubt the illustrious rank they held in Italy even in the twelfth century, and it is somewhat singular that, 600 years ago, Androeleus Bonaparte was Grand Podesta or Governor of Parma, where is now the wife of Napoleon as Grand Duchess!—An important letter from the Duc de Cadore, explaining the intentions of the emperor relating to Holland, the various united propositions of France and Russia to accommodate with England,

and a variety of anecdotes of the author, of Napoleon, and of his family.

This work must be interesting: it is already we hear inquired after with eagerness upon the Continent; in Holland particularly so, as it is known to contain an accurate statement of the political and financial situation of that country during a most important period. As it is written with the utmost candour, and is totally exempt from any expressions which might offend the most partial Bourbonist, it will naturally find a wide circulation in France, where the author, being known to be somewhat opposed to the maxims of his brother's government, it will be likewise read with equal avidity by the most decided ultras.

THE celebrated Schlegel is said to have resigned his place of Professor in the University of Bonn, in consequence of certain proceedings on the part of the Prussian government, which he considered of a grossly arbitrary character. The particular act which has led to this step, is stated to be the seizure of a student at the university in question. Mr. Schlegel has been always considered aristocratic rather than democratic in his opinions,—and not likely to express himself against authority on slight grounds.

A private letter from Naples says, "The 1st instant (December) snow fell here, accompanied by much thunder. About the middle of the night the inhabitants were awakened by a subterraneous noise, and soon afterwards one of the most dreadful eruptions commenced that has been witnessed for 20 years. The inhabitants of Torre del Greco, of l'Annunziata, and even of Portici, experienced the greatest disquietude, apprehending the fate of Herculaneum and Pompeii. The lava, however, fortunately divided itself into five torrents, and flowed to the foot of the mountain for the space of a league. The crater is much enlarged, a part of its brink having fallen into the gulph. On the 7th the lava still continued to flow."

A commentary, or rather an attack, upon the received system of the planetary motions, has recently been published, in a small pamphlet, by Capt. Burney. The author deduces the motion of the whole of our system from the *progressive motion* of the sun itself; a quality which, he says, must be equally possessed by all the heavenly bodies, and results from the universally acknowledged laws of gravitation, or universal attraction.

St. Petersburg, 30th November.—The literary collection of the Imperial Academy of Sciences at St. Petersburg, has been enriched this summer, with a treasure which deserves particular mention in the annals of the Academy. A collection of near five hundred Persian, Arabic, and Turkish MSS. has been added at once to the treasures already possessed by the Asiatic Mu-

seum of the Academy. They were collected in Syria, Mesopotamia, and Persia, by a person versed in those languages, namely, M. Rousseau, formerly the Consul General of France at Aleppo, and since at Bagdad, and taken to France, where they were immediately purchased for Russia, before any competition arose from other countries.

"At Senaar crocodiles are often brought to market, and their flesh is publicly sold there. I once tasted some of the meat at Esne, in Upper Egypt; it is of a dirty white colour, not unlike young veal, with a slight fishy smell; the animal had been caught by some fishermen in a strong net, and was above twelve feet in length. The Governor of Esne ordered it to be brought into his court-yard, where more than an hundred balls were fired against it without any effect, till it was thrown upon its back, and the contents of a small swivel discharged at its belly, the skin of which is much softer than that of the back."—*Burckhardt's Travels.*

*Literary Suicide.*—Mr. Fridick, known by many works which he has published, and particularly by his Satires, has disappeared from Hamburgh, leaving behind him a letter in which he declares his purpose to terminate his existence. It is thought that he has thrown himself into the Elbe, and that his corpse is covered by the ice.

Some portion of Buonaparte's Memoirs, whether genuine or not we cannot tell, have appeared in Germany. The writer affects the style of Cæsar.

*Printed Maps.*—The celebrated Mr. Firmin Didot is now employed in engraving the dies for moveable types for printing maps, which will, it is affirmed, equal those engraved on copper, and which invention seems to be exclusively his own.

Prince Leopold has presented the family of the late Mr. Bird, R. A. with a purse of one hundred guineas, and also given the artist's picture of the "Surrender of Calais," in his Royal Highness's possession, to be disposed of for the benefit of the family. This picture was presented to the lamented Princess Charlotte of Wales, when Mr. Bird had the honour of being appointed Historical Painter to her Royal Highness.

Dr. Prout intends to publish shortly *An Inquiry into the nature and medical treatment of those diseases connected with a deranged action of the urinary organs, especially gravel and calculus.*

The intention of the author is to take a wider and more general view of this important class of diseases than has hitherto been attempted, and particularly to point out the relation of the different forms of these

diseases with one another and with certain local or constitutional derangements.

Several Englishmen have lately made excavations in Cyrene. They have discovered some beautiful statues and other interesting antiquities, and sent them off to London.

*Potatoes.*—According to the most recent inquiries, naturalists declare Lima to be the true country whence potatoes were propagated. They are worth all the mines at Peru.

There has been lately shot near the entrance of Kilkenny harbour, a large sea fowl, having through its neck an arrow, such as those described by Captain Cook to be used by the natives of the islands of the Pacific Ocean. The flesh round the shaft was not only healed, but perfectly hard and callous.

A child of little more than seven years of age, named Faustin Hugues, is at present the object of enthusiastic admiration at Naples, for his extraordinary performances on the violin.

Madame Murat has sold to the Austrian government her fine collection of Medals, (among which are many scarce Greek) for, it is said, 100,000 florins.

The following curious details have been received from Christiania, in Norway:—On the 7th instant the barometer rose to the extraordinary height of 29 inches, 16 lines, which has not taken place here for a great number of years. The sea was eight feet lower on that day than it has been for the last twenty years. Professor Hansteen, who measured its height, made also some experiments as to the intensity of the magnetic force, and found the needle in such agitation that he could obtain no fixed result from his experiments.—These different phenomena appear to portend some extraordinary revolution in nature.

The admirers of Hogarth will learn with pleasure, that an edition of his Works is about to be published by the purchasers of his Plates, lately in the possession of Messrs. Boydell. The Plates will be accompanied by explanations of the various subjects from the pen of Mr. Nichols.

*Cambridge, Dec. 31.*—The Hulsean prize for the present year is adjudged to the Rev. Edward White, B. A. of Corpus Christi College, for his essay on "*The fitness of the time when Christ came into the world.*"

*Porson Prize.*—The passage fixed upon for the present year is Shakspeare—*Macbeth*, Act I. Scene the last. The dialogue between Macbeth and Lady Macbeth, beginning with "We will proceed no further;" and ending with "What the false heart doth know."

## POLITICS AND PUBLIC MANNERS.

## HISTORICAL AND CRITICAL SUMMARY OF PUBLIC EVENTS.

(To be continued Monthly.)

THE article following this, on Parga, which must be read with great interest, has extended to the greater part of the space which we allot to this department of our Magazine. Since our last, Parliament has continued in a state of adjournment; and fewer immediate topics of discussion therefore suggest themselves. Were we to enter, indeed, on those general questions which relate to the moral and political condition of the nation, there would be no want of themes:—but we cannot attempt this on the present occasion. Amongst our announcements at the commencement of the Number, we give notice of a Paper, for our next, on a very important subject, under the general head of our Political department.

Perhaps the most interesting incident of the last month, is the lively awakening of public charity in the metropolis, and over the country generally, in favour of the poor classes of society, exposed to more than common hardships, from the late very extraordinary inclemency of the weather. A subscription of from twelve to fourteen thousand pounds, has been almost instantaneously made in London, for the purpose of affording *temporary relief* to the *houseless*. The Committee, extending their views as their means became greater than they had anticipated, have stated that their intention is to seek out distress in its obscurer haunts, where it generally exists in its worst and most hideous shape. It is not obtrusive misery that is usually the keenest; and a melancholy series of paragraphs, which have appeared in the public journals, show that numbers of poor creatures, disabled by illness, or withheld by shame, have lately sobbed out the last breathings of life, under the heavy pressure of accumulated cold and want, in retreats, the wretchedness of which startles the imagination. It is in these retreats

“Where silent Want retires to die,”

that charitable search and relief are most of all needed. England, as a country, does more than any other in this way;—but it ought not to be forgotten that she has also occasion to do more. The highly artificial, and overstrained (if we may so speak) state of her social condition, renders its ranks precarious, and the hazards of life immense. The streets of London are heart-rending to the compassionate passenger,—when the inclemency of the weather adds to the evils which poverty always suffers under, and renders them more obvious to the eye. Do not let us refine too much on this subject: the question of mendicancy loudly calls for the sober and cool inquiries of the political economist, and statesman; but prominent and palpable misery demands relief. Have the poor an interest in being naked, and houseless, and hungry? It would almost seem so, from the tenor of certain late representations on the danger of charitable donations. These, however, we are happy to say, do not accord with the public feeling: the public heart rejects them; and British enthusiasm never shows itself more ardent, than when excited by glaring instances of human suffering. May this long continue to be one of the national distinctions of the country!

PARGA.

A work in French, entitled “*A Statement of Facts relative to the Cession of Parga*,” in which the character and honour of our government, and of its agents, are deeply implicated, has just been published in Paris. It is a production of singular interest, as drawn up by two unfortunate natives of the small christian republic, which has lately been torn up by the roots, and driven from the continent of Greece, to enlarge the dominion, and gratify the revenge, of an infidel barbarian. Its Authors, in language more becoming their ancestors in the days of freedom, than their degene-

rate brethren who now bend under the Turkish yoke, describe the sufferings, and denounce the wrongs, of their countrymen, with whom, persecuted and friendless, they now wander over the world:—

*Incerti quo fata ferent, ubi sistere detur.*

The public heard a good deal, during last summer and autumn, of the negotiations which preceded, and the consequences which followed, the cession of Parga to Ali Pacha, by the power which had undertaken its protection; but, before the appearance of the present pamphlet, we had no connected, circumstantial, and authentic account of the whole series of the transactions which have involved the fate and fortunes of that independent community. We knew, for instance, (for we were told so in Parliament) that, in virtue of a treaty passed between Russia and the Porte, in 1800, and raked out of a mass of forgotten diplomacy during the negotiations at Paris in 1815, (though more than twice overlaid by subsequent conventions), the Turks claimed possession of all the independent cities on the coast of Epirus, which were formerly appendages of the septinsular republic. We knew that Great Britain, yielding to the claims of our august ally, had engaged herself to the surrender of Parga, the only one of them which, by its own resolute fortitude, had escaped the perfidious barbarity that laid the rest in ashes. We knew that the surrender had taken place, contrary to the entreaties and the tears of the inhabitants, and that the infidel, in seizing his new acquisitions, had found only trees, and walls, and houses, without a single subject:—but we did not know, before, all the treacherous wiles, and insolent demands of the Pacha, nor all the sufferings and hardships of the Parganiotes.

Of all the cessions, or changes of dominion, that have taken place in consequence of the great events of 1814, the one under consideration seems, in its policy, the least defensible, and in its consequences the most calculated to excite the sympathies, not only of every just and patriotic, but of every humane minded man. When Norway was ceded to Sweden, when Genoa was annexed to the kingdom of Sardinia, and Venice be-

came a portion of the Austrian empire, the transference, in each instance, was severely felt by the party transferred; but the immediate and positive injury which these parties suffered, independently of the wound inflicted on their sense of national dignity, were comparatively trifling. Being Christian and civilised states, they became subject to Christian and civilized governments; their property was secured; their laws and customs were respected; no barbarous vengeance was threatened, and few instances of voluntary banishment occurred. In the case of Parga, on the contrary, we see a Christian community surrendered to a Mahometan despot; we witness a civilized people handed over to a cruel barbarian; we hear that despot, and that barbarian, swearing vengeance against his expected subjects for their former resistance to his yoke, and we behold the latter, to a man, leaving their homes and their country, the temples of their God, and the tombs of their kindred, rather than fall into the power of a conqueror, whose oath of vengeance, they well knew, was the only obligation that he ever held sacred.

But, it is said, such a contingency was provided for by the British commissioners, who, in mercy to the Parganiotes, secured a sufficient indemnity for their property, in the possible case of their being averse to trust their persons in the hands of the Turk. Concerning the adequacy of this indemnity, as a mere money transaction, we shall allow the parties themselves to speak, through the medium of the statement which we are about to submit;—but, allowing it to be as ample as an honest, expert appraiser would have made it, could any man call it sufficient or satisfactory? The value of an olive tree, or of the brick and mortar of a building, may be ascertained and paid, but what price can a man receive for his country? What indemnity for the loss of national independence? What compensation for the security of accustomed institutions, for the endearments of home, for the associations and recollections which are linked to the spot where he was born, and where his ancestors are buried? “We would ourselves emigrate,” said the chief of a savage

tribe, "but can we say to the bones of our fathers, arise and go with us?" The very circumstance, therefore, of requiring an indemnity, on the part of the Parganiotes, while it showed that they intended universal exile, proved that no indemnity would, or could, be sufficient; and that the iniquitous convention, by which they were to be transferred to the vengeance of a tyrant, and which was to be followed by such consequences, ought to have been annulled as incompatible with the honour of England, and repugnant to humanity.

But we must now allow the Parganiotes to speak for themselves. The pamphlet, from which we are about to give extracts, has been translated from the modern Greek by Mr. Amaury Duval, Member of the Institute of France, who introduces it by an advertisement, in which he indulges in great asperity of remark against the English government for its conduct in this affair. "It will," he exclaims, "be an eternal monument of disgrace for the English government, and will constitute another proof of its machiavelism, its avidity, and its perfidy." We may add, that, if one of our objects in acquiring territory, and maintaining establishments in the Ionian isles, was the liberal one of exercising an improving influence over a classic and noble minded people, and thus forming a nucleus of civilization, of social freedom, and just government for their brethren on the Grecian continent, nothing could give a more fatal blow to our hopes than our treatment of the Parganiotes. Nothing can be done without the confidence and love of the natives, and what confidence can be reposed in, or affection entertained for, a government, which, in contempt of the most solemn assurances of protection, ceded the territory of its most faithful adherents to a merciless barbarian!

Non extorquebis amari;  
Hoc alterna fides, hoc simplex gratia donat.

#### EXTRACTS FROM THE PAMPHLET.

The territory of Parga composes a portion of that part of Epirus, which the Greeks called Thesprotia. The old city of Parga was situated, at a league's distance from the sea, upon a mountain which commands the

small state of the Parganiotes, and divided it from the dominions of Ali Pacha. The most antient traditions of the city do not extend beyond the year 1400. It appears, however, to have been founded at an earlier period, and to have owed its name, of *Ypargos*, to its dependence on the despots of Argos Amphilochicum, from which it is not far distant. No vestiges of high antiquity are found about it: the medals which have been discovered belong mostly to the era of the lower empire.

When the Ottoman hordes invaded the Greek empire, the Parganiotes deserted their former residence, in order to protect themselves from the insults of the conqueror, and founded on the coast a small city, to which they gave the name of Parga. Such an event, at such a period, could not take place without leaving its legend and its miracle; and, accordingly, we find that the spot for the present city was selected under the auspices of the Virgin Mary, whose image, till lately, was considered as its palladium. The Turks having pushed their conquests into Macedonia, the Emperors of the East found it impossible to defend their distant provinces. The lion of St. Marc then covered, with his wings, nearly the whole of the sea coast, from the lagoons of the Adriatic, to the strait of the Bosphorus. To the Venetians, therefore, the Parganiotes looked for protection, when left without succour by the weak sovereigns of Constantinople. Having sent deputies to Corfu, they took the oath of allegiance to that republic in 1401, and the privileges which were granted them in their union were confirmed in 1447.

The Turks, having made themselves masters of all the western parts of the Greek empire, continually harassed the Parganiotes; and, in 1550, burned and sacked their city. The Venetians again assisted them, and in 1571, built the castle, which, till within a few months, constituted their defence. The waves of the sea dash, on three sides, against its steep flanks, and, from its summit, are seen the mountains which bound the territory of Parga, a part of the Ionian sea, the isle and the promontory of Leucadia. On the declivity of the rock are built the houses, which seem to spring from each other; and the

church of the Blessed Virgin towers over the summit of the amphitheatre. The castle on the side of the sea is defended by nature, and, on the land side, by strong walls, surmounted by 20 or 30 pieces of cannon. The inhabitants had, thus, nothing to fear but a blockade, as 50 men could defend the castle.

The small territory of this state, which is uneven in its surface, is refreshed by rivulets and springs of excellent water, which have their source in the interior. The fertilizing influence of these streams, and the industry of the inhabitants, had rendered the territory of Parga smiling and productive. Vines and olives sprung up every where. Citrons and orange trees displayed, in their gardens, all the brilliancy of their foliage and fruits, and their productions, forming the most lucrative commerce of Parga, supplied its inhabitants with competence, while they lent an unspeakable charm to the aspect of their territory. On the side of Epirus, Parga appeared like a palm tree in the desert. What a contrast between it and the neighbouring land! In the one, all flourished under the benign influence of liberty; in the other, traces of the destructive hand of tyrannical power were alone visible. Yet the latter country had once been, like Parga, cultivated and populous: but, alas! it fell into the merciless hand of Ali Pacha, and the miserable inhabitants were either massacred, or driven up into the interior! Thorns and thistles now cover the once fertile soil, and desolation and solitude there reign!—*In this melancholy picture, Parga may now contemplate its future condition!*

The climate of this little state is peculiarly healthy, for its air is keen and pure. Homer gave to Argos the distinguishing epithet of *handsome-womened*, and Parga merits to be regarded as its successor, for this as well as for other reasons. Its females are remarkable, even amongst the Greeks, for their personal beauty; and it was a sight, at once touching and graceful, to see them, of an evening, with a simplicity worthy of the ancient times, going in troops to the public fountains, bearing vases for the water on their heads, fancifully dressed with ribbons entwined in the hair. All this is now over: but the

women of Parga have not dishonoured themselves or their country.

The population of Parga has been estimated at four thousand souls. Their manners, origin, language, and religion are Greek. Lieutenant-general Campbell, commanding the British forces in the Adriatic, gave them the following character, in his instructions to Lieutenant Brulton of the 7th Regt. dated 11th May, 1815:

*“The Parganiotes are Greek Albanians; extremely attached to the liberty of their little community. They are habitually averse to the dominion of the Turks. They are a spirited and independent people, but, at the same time, docile and easy to command, when they are treated with liberality and justice. All the male part of the population are trained to arms, and expert in the use of them.”*

Parga has always been obnoxious to Ali Pacha, because it succeeded in preserving its independence, and even furnished an asylum sometimes, to the miserable persons who escaped from his barbarous fury. The shelter it afforded to the Salliotas, whose magnanimous actions are not surpassed by any trait in the history of ancient Sparta, may be mentioned as an instance of the utility of its independence in this respect. It was generally assailed by the surrounding barbarians, yet, though often blockaded during the greater part of the year, it was still rendered impregnable, at the expense of the blood of its inhabitants, who never hesitated to shed it when necessary. It was governed by a noble of Corfu; and the Parganiotes had a popular council, syndics, officers of health, &c. In 1797, the republic of Venice having fallen, Parga came into the hands of the French. In 1798, England, Russia, and the Porte united against France, and Ali Pacha joined the confederation for the sake of acting with more effect against his neighbours. The French held all the former Venetian possessions on the side of Epirus. Against these the barbarian advanced, and the town of Previsa having fallen into his hands, was pillaged, burned, and its inhabitants afterwards massacred. The day after its fall, the conqueror ordered three hundred Greeks to be brought into his presence, and before his eyes they were immediately slaughtered.

His hands yet reeking with this blood, he marched against Parga. Knowing the courage and determination of the inhabitants, he here employed perfidy in preference to force. He wrote them a letter, disavowing all hostile intentions, but calling upon them to send a deputation, to confer with him on the means of submitting them to his sovereign; and, in a second dispatch, he says he merely wishes them to *chase and kill their French defenders!* Their reply is noble: in substance it is as follows:—"We reverence you, most puissant, Ali Pacha, and are glad you are in good health: but you will find it very difficult to obtain from us the submission you exact, for we have but too clear proofs that a free death is preferable to life under the yoke of infamous tyranny. We neither can destroy the French, nor would if we could. Our country has prided itself on its good faith for centuries past, and its reputation it will defend with its blood. We have never known what fear is: the time of trial approaches: we are ready; and they who win will be glorified."

The Pacha tells them that they are proud, and not prudent; that he wishes only their good,—but that if they do not listen to him, the "*anger of God must pass over them, for these affairs proceed from God, and not from men.*"

By the treaty which was concluded at Constantinople, in 1800, Parga was compelled to submit to the Porte, but a good deal was stipulated in its favour, and it was pretty well secured against outrage. A single Turk, only, representing the Bey, was admitted into the fortress, and a body of the citizens, destined to guard it, was put under his orders. In 1806, their old enemy Ali Pacha, taking advantage of the war between Russia and the Porte, directed an army of 20,000 men against Parga. The inhabitants solicited the protection of the former power, and received from it the small assistance of some Ionian and Albanian soldiers. The barbarian, despairing of success, gave up the project.

In 1807, the Ionian islands were given up to the French, and Ali Pacha used every means of intrigue and corruption, to gain from the French Emperor what he had failed

to attain by force of arms. His attempts, however, of this nature, were vain: Napoleon ardently desired, for his own reasons, to cultivate the friendship of the Pacha, but he nevertheless steadily refused to sacrifice the Parganiotes, and ordered that the French flag should be their guarantee. In 1814, the French became distressed by the turn which political events had taken. Ali, ever on the watch, lost no time in bestirring himself. He got possession, by a *coup de main*, of Aja, a village on the frontier, and massacred, and reduced to slavery, the inhabitants. Some saved themselves in the fortress of their friends the Parganiotes; and Ali now directed the war against the French. The people assisted their allies, and repelled their invader.

Towards the consummation of the downfall of Napoleon, the French garrison of Parga was summoned to surrender by an English squadron. The Parganiotes took the negotiation into their own hands, for they found that the French commander was intriguing with Ali Pacha. The English demanded securities, and the people of Parga, in their turn, demanded to be re-united to the Ionian Islands. On the authority of General Campbell, a British detachment took possession of the state, and the Parganiotes obliged the French to ground their arms. A deputation was straightway dispatched to General Campbell, which took the oath of fidelity, in the name of the people, on condition that the fate of Parga should be for ever united to that of the Ionians. THEIR CONDITION WAS ACCEPTED, AND THE MOST SATISFACTORY ANSWERS WERE GIVEN TO THE DEPUTATION.

The treaty of Paris, of the 5th of May, 1815, decided the sovereignty of the Ionian Islands; but Parga was not named. The inhabitants, alarmed, demanded explanations from Lieutenant-General Sir Thomas Maitland. None were given. Distrust now began to take possession of the minds of the Parganiotes, up to this time reposing securely on the faith of the stipulated agreement, and doubting neither the good faith nor power of England. Their fate, however, was settled, while they had scarcely commenced to suspect. *The cession of Parga to*

*the Porte was decreed!* Ali Pacha, after all his discomfitures, through the courage and perseverance of the Parganiotes, now found them delivered into his hands by the first power of the world, who had bound herself to their protection by a solemn engagement. With eager haste he announced the intelligence to Sir T. Maitland, at Corfu, where his emissary arrived the 13th March, 1817, and stated that the Turkish commissioner was at Janina.

A British officer, with 30 men, had hitherto formed the garrison of Parga, for the docility of the people to the laws secured public order and tranquillity. Now, however, the instruments of its ruin felt, that precautions were necessary against the consequences of popular despair. The day after the arrival of Ali's messenger, General Maitland dispatched Lieutenant-Colonel de Bosset, with a reinforcement of three hundred soldiers, to Parga. His orders were to announce its cession to the Porte; to refuse to receive any memorial against this measure from the inhabitants; to state to them that their fate was definitively settled; to preach to them patience and submission, adding that *England would totally abandon them to their enemies, if they attempted to sustain their independence by arms!*

In conformity to his orders, the Lieutenant-Colonel issued a proclamation, stating the cession, and adding that measures had been taken to arrange, as well as possible, the affairs of those of the inhabitants who chose to expatriate themselves.

The news struck the people of Parga with the force of a sentence of death. Overwhelmed with consternation, they represented to General Maitland, that no satisfactory arrangement of this nature could be made. What possible compensation can we receive, they asked, for quitting our native country. The Congress of Vienna has said nothing about us: could we then suppose that we should be delivered up to our enemies by those whom we had chosen as our protectors. The English, who have abolished the slave-trade, and rescued Christian slaves from the barbarity of the pirates, could we think it possible that they would deliver up to slavery four

thousand Europeans, who have always maintained their own freedom, and who have, for three years, given sound proofs of attachment and fidelity to England? They finished by praying, with tears in their eyes, as they stated, that Sir Thomas Maitland would permit them to make known their case to the Prince Regent, and deign to support their representation with his good offices.

This memorial was dated the 22d March, 1817; on the 18th, four days before, a treaty was signed at Janina, the capital of their enemy, by which the cession of Parga to the Sublime Porte was completed!

Both *justice* and *utility*, have in this instance been disregarded by England. Had she the right to make over Parga, in this way, to the government it abhorred! No, certainly not. All that she can possibly pretend is, that she might have left it to the Parganiotes to take care of themselves: that she was free to withdraw her garrison, or even afterwards to second, if that seemed honourable, the endeavours of her new allies to subdue this small independent state. But this is very different from the right of cession, which she has now used, and to which clearly she had not the shadow of a pretension. At all events, if the Porte rested its claims on the treaty of March, 1800, and it was thought fit to yield to them, would it not have been worthy of the English nation, so proud of its liberty and generosity, to have taken care that Parga should at least enjoy all the protection secured to her by that treaty: ought not the English to have shown at least as much consideration for her, as the Russians? The Parganiotes have bitter reasons for regretting the difference between the conduct of the two powers in regard to them.

As delivering the people of Parga unconditionally to Ali Pacha, would have been delivering them unqualifiedly and avowedly to death; it was stipulated in the treaty, that the Turkish government should pay on the spot, the value of the property of such of the inhabitants as might choose to leave their native land:—the property to be valued by honest men, half chosen from the islands, and half from the continent. Messrs. Cartwright and Parish were appoint-

ed commissaries to arrange these matters. English wisdom was not sufficient to cope with the wiles and perfidy of Ali Pacha. He amused the commissaries in all sorts of ways, intercepted their correspondence, carressed them, feasted them, and, in the mean time, he heaped every possible hardship on unhappy Parga; cut off its supplies, and sent his wretches among the inhabitants, to stir them to insurrection, hoping thus to evade the payment altogether.

A cortege formed of Turks, brigands, criminals, and the two English commissaries, at length set out from the capital of Ali Pacha, to enter the territory of Parga. By the precautions of the commanding officer (de Bosset) the greater part of these were ordered to halt at Margante, a village six miles distant from Parga;—the unhappy people of which stated, in an energetic memorial, that they ought to be spared the insult of seeing the Turks thus brought to their doors. "We do not fear to see thousands of them as enemies, said they, but we have an intolerable repugnance to see a few of them wearing the mask of friendship, which only hides the indications of the ferocious designs of the tyrant." They finished by stating, that, unless this request was granted, they could not be responsible for any troubles, which insolence on one side, and despair on the other, might occasion.

A cunning Greek, named Manthose, secretary to Ali, came as commissary on his part; and it was his business to gain over the Parganiotes by intrigues; the great object of the Pacha being to avoid the payment of the money. The Parganiotes, notwithstanding the earnest solicitations of the British authorities, steadily refused to present themselves before this man, or to pay him visits of civility. The presents he brought from his wily master, they would not touch. They would sell nothing to the Turks, and the authorities were obliged to take by force what was wanted by the new comers. The commissaries of the two nations now formally announced the cession of the state, and the British commander threatened the most prompt chastisement, should any inhabitant trouble the public order.

The whole population was brought

before the commissaries, individual by individual, to state the determination of each. Men, women, and children, without one single exception, by word and by writing,—even one poor deaf and dumb creature, by means of most expressive gestures,—declared that departure from their country was all now left for them to do.

Two hundred thousand pounds was the sum at which the property was first valued. This valuation was founded on legal contracts, acts of the tribunals, and attested calculations. The valuation was annulled by General Maitland, as too hard upon Ali Pacha, and Colonel de Bosset was recalled, as too favourable to the Parganiotes. Colonel Patrick Stuart was sent in his place. A great deal of delay now took place, during which every attempt was made to get the people of Parga to abandon their determination of quitting; but in vain: staff in hand they awaited the moment of invasion as that of their departure, and permitted their fields to remain unsown and uncultivated.

Towards the end of October, Sir Thomas Maitland yielded to the invitation of Ali Pacha, and came over to Prevesa, where the three hundred Greeks had been massacred. The British General was surrounded by his staff, and by several of the English nobility, visitors at Corfu. The English ladies were particularly observable on this occasion, and Ali Pacha particularly polite to his friends of both sexes; while the poor Parganiotes, looked on from a distance, and contrasted this scene of splendour and gaiety with the melancholy fate to which perfidy had reduced them. Such is the vicissitude of human affairs! To that country, where the valour of Don Juan of Austria humbled the Turkish pride, and broke the chains of several thousand English prisoners, the illustrious representative of the sovereign of the seas, came, three centuries later, to render a visit of ceremony to a Turk, and at the same time to concert with him, how it might be found easiest to deliver peaceably up to slavery, a nation of brave and magnanimous christians!

The nephew of the British General was now sent to press the people of

Parga, by notifications and proclamations, to withdraw all obstacles to the execution of the treaty, and to put an end to every thing which *unfortunately retarded the cession of their country, which was irrevocably fixed!*

The Parganiotes were again summoned, individual by individual, to state whether they were still determined on departure.—Yes, was the reply of every one. A new estimation of their property was then ordered. They were not permitted to name any of the arbitrators: Ali Pacha nominated his share, from among his subjects, who bent their heads to his orders, that they might not have to bend them to his hangmen. On giving them their commission, he pleasantly added: “*Remember, Gentlemen, to judge according to your conscience; but do not forget, that the price of an olive tree cannot reasonably be put down at more than eight shillings.*” This sum is scarcely the half of its common worth. Sir Thomas Maitland appointed some inhabitants of Corfu to meet these.

Disputes arose as to the principles of the valuation. The Parganiotes appealed to the British general; he set off for Malta without giving them a reply: a good reason for presuming that justice was not against them. But in what a light does such conduct reflect the national character!

The Carnival season came on: the people of Parga observed it with a kind of sad and stern mirth. They composed songs for the occasion, and went through the streets singing them to their lyres:—one of these may thus be rendered:

‘Our swords lie on the ground, like extinguished thunder-bolts! Oh, sea! receive us, free as we yet are, into thy free bosom, for the earth is become the abode of slavery!—But we entreat, Oh sea! that thy salt waves may not float our corpses near to the English ships,—for they would sell them to our insolent foes!’

The women sung,—

‘Green laurels! vermilion roses! never again shall you ornament our humbled heads! Birds of the thickets, streams, and zephyrs, never again shall ye hear the sound of our voices: for ornaments and songs do not become those who quit their native land!’

The veterans of freedom took a loftier strain: they recalled the actions of Liasca, an intrepid Epirote:

‘Liasca never obeyed the Pacha; he never bent before the Vizir! Liasca’s Pacha was his musket;—his Vizir was his good sword! And we will imitate thee, Liasca! Let us rush, like lions in the mountains!’

The inhabitants had bound themselves by terrible imprecations not to approach a Turk: the whole of Ali Pacha’s subjects, therefore, were totally isolated in the town; but such were the sounds which they heard around them on all sides.

At length General Maitland returned from Malta: the arbitrators, named by himself and the tyrant, had given, as their estimate, the reduced sum of one million and twenty-five thousand seven hundred tallaris: the General stated, that, *having profoundly and maturely deliberated, he annulled the estimate thus made*, by those to whom he had given his confidence, and holding, as he said, to the just middle, awarded about seven hundred thousand tallaris (150,000*l.* sterling) as the proper compensation. He added, that the British government, *being very indifferent about the emigration altogether*, did not understand that it would have to defray the extraordinary expenses. How many times have these words been repeated to the Parganiotes!

It was soon after announced to the people of Parga, that, in spite of the most positive engagement to the contrary, a party of the Pacha’s troops was about to enter their territory, although the convention was not terminated. The most lively sensation was caused by this new act of outrage. The Primates of the town represented to Sir Thomas Maitland, that this arrangement, so contrary to the faith of treaties, excited the highest degree of despair in the breasts of the Parganiotes: “they are decided to depart, and they entreat of *your Excellency’s mercy*, that they may not have their eyes insulted by their cruel and insidious enemies in the very heart of their unhappy country.” “Have pity,” said they, “on our women, and our children:—we are going; and will go as soon as it pleases your Excellency:—but, in mercy, keep the Turks back until we are gone!”

His Excellency conceded in this instance to the wishes of these poor people. It was ordered that the Turks should not enter till the Par-

ganiotes departed. Yet even this last engagement was not kept without an attempt to break it. Sir Frederick Adams came to persuade the inhabitants to permit the Turks at least to advance within the frontier, to take possession of the territory, if they would not permit them to come into the town. The people now showed themselves quite indignant at this repetition of trick and perfidy, and replied in the following words:—"We cannot, and we will not consent! Though all the ships of England were to present themselves, threatening our little state, the first step of the first Turk on our land should be the signal of death! They have never yet dared to profane it, without paying for their audacity with their lives."

At length the Parganiotes had reason to think, that the British garrison, admitted for their protection, was not unlikely to act against them. The sight of their wives and children caused them to put a curb on their indignation, and they finally resolved to take their departure, though no money had yet been paid to them, and they knew not for a certainty that any ever would. So many engagements had been violated towards them, that they might well harbour general distrust. The passion-week was the period fixed upon, and the scene of removal was of the most distressing description. They disinterred the bones of their ancestors, which some transported with them, and others hid in secret places, hoping to be one day in a condition to recover them. The women bathed their children in the springs of their country for the last time, and the whole population, bending at one signal to the earth, kissed the beloved soil from which they were so shamefully forced. To add to their misfortunes, the moment at which they were thus forced away, was that of gathering the fruit of the olives, the produce of which alone, left on the trees, equalled the sixth part of the whole sum awarded to them. The most rich amongst them shared with the poorest as brethren, and supplied to them what was necessary for two months subsistence. Their own barks, and a few borrowed from the Islands, conveyed them from Parga,—part going to

Corfu, and part to Pexo; so that no assistance was, in any way whatever, afforded to them.—Obliged to divide themselves in different islands, the unhappy Parganiotes saw themselves thus, as a nation, annihilated; their fraternal bonds were broken,—and the attachments of individuals as violently dissevered, as that of a whole people from their native land. And thus were accomplished the repeated promises of *generosity, benevolence, and paternal affection!*

The Parganiotes, thus arrived all in disorder at Corfu, in vain sought an opportunity of making a personal representation to General Maitland. His Excellency set off again for Previsa, where he had a third interview with the Pacha; and it will hardly be credited, that this barbarian and robber refused to repose that faith on the word of the representative of the King of England, which simple merchants willingly give to each other. Ali shewed his bags of money, but refused to hand them over without hostages for the fulfilment of the treaty; and two English officers (Messrs. Hankey and Robinson) were put at the disposal of a man whose whole life has been a continued series of the most sanguinary enormities.

Sir Thomas Maitland returned to Corfu, and the money followed him. On the 9th May, 1818, the order was given to the garrison to admit the Turks. The morning of the 10th saw Parga, for the last time, free, and it was not yet to be pitied, though its streets were solitary, and its houses tenantless. On that day the English opened, with their own hands, the gates to the Turks, and the soldiers of a King who places amongst his titles of honour, that of defender of the faith, hauled down his flag, that the infidel crescent might wave over a land hitherto Christian! The Turks rushed in like hungry wolves. They glutted their rage on the edifices and inanimate objects,—the living having escaped their fury. Into the churches, as a mark of indignity, they introduced their horses;—the blood of their sacrifices streamed in the streets, where whole bands, more like maniacs than any thing else, sent forth the most frightful cries, discharging muskets and pistols at random, in the drunkenness of their furious joy.

The English military withdrew to the beach,—and the females belonging to them being seized with terror at the conduct of the wretches to whom it was wished to deliver up the *Parganiotes*,—they quitted the devoted shore, leaving part of their baggage a prey to the infidels.

The cession of Parga marks the epoch of the commencement of the eternal distrust and hatred, which the Greeks must, for the future, cherish against the English. They have all now to fear the fate which the people of Parga have experienced. The good and amiable Leucadians above all others. May heaven avert the misfortunes which are but too probable.

After suffering the greatest distress, and experiencing the most vexatious treatment, the *Parganiotes* were at length paid the sum of 635,000 tallaris; *the remaining 31,666 being deducted for the exchange!* The money may be said

to have been generally swallowed up by the various expenses and losses attending their removal, and the inconveniences to which they were put by its late payment. This did not take place before the month of August—nearly five months after their expatriation; and the sum awarded them may be safely stated not to be equal to one-fourth the actual value of their property.

The above is an abridgment of the contents of the French pamphlet: a good deal of it, which we have omitted, bears marks of French *redaction*,—and spoils the effect of the statement made by the *Parganiotes* themselves:—but England, though she may despise the *verbiage* of a Parisian, has but too much reason to feel humbled before the strength of facts. The history of the destruction of Parga will always be remembered to her shame.

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## MONTHLY REGISTER.

### COLONIAL INTELLIGENCE.

#### COMMUNICATION RELATIVE TO THE STATE OF THE COLONY OF NEW SOUTH WALES.

THE peculiar circumstances attending the formation of this colony in 1788, naturally led to the establishment of a government highly despotic in the principles of its administration; such being, in fact, the suitable institution for a place that could then be considered only in the light of a prison. But the circumstances of the colony have been materially changed and improved since then, so far as the character and property of its population are concerned; yet private interests and party cabal have hitherto prevented any corresponding and required alteration from being made in the government. A short time since, however, some gentlemen who have the real interests of the colony and of the mother country at heart, took advantage of a general meeting of the inhabitants, to introduce the discussion of several matters of great public in-

terest and concern; and the result has been, that a petition has been addressed to the throne, setting forth many of the grievances and privations which the colony labours under, and praying for that redress which, it was thought, its inhabitants were prepared for, and entitled to receive. An abstract of this petition we are enabled to give. It has been presented to the government at home; and we think it is of a nature to insure a favourable answer: at all events, it is a most curious document connected with the history of the colony, and illustrative of its present condition. It has met with the entire approbation of the Governor, General Macquarie; and it has been signed by all the respectable inhabitants, including the magistrates, chaplains, settlers, merchants, &c. to the amount of 1,260 in number. There is every reason, then, as we have just said, to trust, that, now it

has been laid before His Royal Highness the Prince Regent in council, an acquiescence in its prayer will be the result.

There is, however, one most important subject connected with the state of the colony, which is omitted in the petition. The reason of the omission is, that the petitioners, having many grievances to complain of, and much to ask for, thought it would not be prudent to demand too much at once. The matter to which we allude relates to the nature of the colonial government of New South Wales. It is, as we have said, a pure despotism. The governor, by his general order and proclamation, makes, alters, and rescinds laws; levies taxes; imprisons and sends out of the colony his Majesty's free subjects, without trial, at his pleasure, and without any previous reference to the government at home. He is subject to no controul in the colony; and has no official adviser. They have there no executive or legislative council; no house of assembly; nothing to represent the colonists in the government. It is true that, to the honour of General Macquarie, his administration has been, in the main, for a despotic administration, a mild one. He really wishes to serve the colony, and promote its prosperity: but mild as the present administration of the government comparatively is, yet, being exempt from check, controul, or examination, at such an immense distance from home, certain abuses inevitably attach themselves to it. There exists, we are sorry to say, no regular settled system of procedure; and, as good men are the most easily imposed on, the ear and confidence of the governor are liable to be occupied by certain favourites of the day, not always possessing worth equal to their professions and pretensions. Such men generally are, in their spheres, so many petty tyrants. Complaint is construed by them into sedition: a just sense of liberty into rebellion; and even private differences

with the underlings of power, are magnified and represented as proofs of factious opposition to the government.

The greater part of the present population of New South Wales, has been born and educated in England; and such persons naturally feel most uneasy and dissatisfied under this state of things. They conceive that, as inhabitants of a British colony, with an extensive and rapidly increasing population, and many and great natural advantages and capacities, they are entitled to that constitutional representative form of government which exists in every other British colony. They think they ought not to be suffered longer to struggle with a system of government framed for the controul of the colony, when its population was composed entirely of convicts: they do not, in short, think it either premature or presumptuous to look now for a constitution somewhat analogous to that of the mother country, or at least of the sister colonies.

The first part of the following petition relates to the court of criminal judicature, in New South Wales; than which it would seem impossible that any court should be more imperfect, or liable to abuse. There is also a court of civil judicature subject to similar objections; but, at the time the petition was drawn out, the judge of the civil court happened to be at a remote part of the colony, and it was not deemed decorous to enter into the imperfections of his court (especially as they embraced his personal administration of justice) in his absence. We have received, however, the substance of what is considered objectionable in the supreme court of civil judicature, and shall take an early opportunity of publishing the paper. We also expect to be enabled to afford, from time to time, more extended details relative to the government, policy, jurisprudence, agriculture, commerce, population, and character of this interesting colony.

*Result of the Last Census of the Inhabitants.*

| FREE PERSONS. |        |           |        | CONVICTS. |        |        | Total Souls.                        |
|---------------|--------|-----------|--------|-----------|--------|--------|-------------------------------------|
| Men.          | Women. | Children. | Total. | Men.      | Women. | Total. |                                     |
| 6514          | 3491   | 10,266    | 20,271 | 6880      | 4510   | 11,390 | Free..... 20,271<br>Convicts 11,390 |

Total souls, the 1st March, 1819, 31,661

*To His Royal Highness the Prince Regent  
in Council.*

The humble petition of the gentlemen, clergy, settlers, merchants, landholders, and other free inhabitants of His Majesty's territory of New South Wales, in a general meeting duly assembled,

Most humbly sheweth,

That your petitioners, hitherto unaccustomed to approach the throne, are now induced to exercise that invaluable privilege, for the purpose of most humbly laying before your Royal Highness, a statement of the restrictions, disabilities, and inconveniences, under which this His Majesty's colony labours, respecting the several matters hereinafter stated; matters of the most vital consequence to its interests and prosperity.

That the population of this territory consists of upwards of 25,000 souls, English, Scotch, and Irish, born subjects of His Majesty, and their children; the greater part of whom, in the proportion of five sevenths, are free settlers, merchants, land, and house-holders.

That, on the settlement of this colony, in the year 1788, a court of criminal judicature was established by His Majesty's letters patent, a cursory review of the constitution of which court clearly shews, that it could be intended only for a very small community, and a state of society very much confined. But your petitioners most humbly shew, that this original state of the society is long since passed away; that the free and respectable population is numerous and intelligent; and that, in cattle, and land in cultivation, it is comparatively wealthy; yet the court of criminal jurisdiction has undergone no alteration since its establishment at the very infancy of the colony.

That the said court of criminal judicature consists of a judge advocate, and six officers of His Majesty's forces by sea or land; appointed by the governor or lieutenant-governor: that the judge advocate is the president of the court; that it is moreover his duty to examine the depositions (taken very frequently before himself as magistrate), upon committal of offenders—to prepare the informations upon which they are to be tried—to exhibit those informations to the court—to summon the witnesses—to prosecute the prisoner—conduct and make minutes of the trial—to make observations thereon to the other members—to give his opinion and vote upon the guilt or innocence of the prisoner—and, finally, to pronounce the judgment of the court. Hence this officer, the judge advocate, is at once the committing magistrate—grand jury—public prosecutor—petit juror—and judge—and, from being so intimately concerned in the preliminary steps of every prosecution, he cannot possibly be supposed free from some degree of bias against the

innocence of the prisoner, the more especially, as in his capacity, as grand jury, he is bound to believe a man guilty, before he puts him on his trial.

[Here follows a paragraph recapitulating the objections against submitting the characters and interests of the colonists to such a tribunal. The petition then proceeds as follows:]

And your petitioners shew, that there are now resident in this colony a great number of free respectable inhabitants, perfectly competent to serve as jurymen;—men by whose property, exertions, and labour, the country has been cleared and cultivated, towns built, and a thriving colony (notwithstanding the many disabilities it labours under), reared up and established. Your petitioners most humbly beg leave to call your Royal Highness's attention to the opinions on this point, of men, who, from their situations in the colony, were intimately acquainted with all its means and resources, and who were well qualified to form correct opinions thereon.

[Here the petitioners introduce the opinions of all their late governors, which are favourable to them on this point.]

[The petitioners proceed to give these testimonies, and to state that the respectable part of the population has increased in a fair proportion with the entire numbers. They say, that the state of society is much improved, and that it daily improves; that ties and connections have been formed, and are daily forming, which unite man to man, and strengthen the bonds of union and social order. On these grounds, they hope to have extended to them that great and valued inheritance of their ancestors, TRIAL BY JURY, constituted upon the strict principles of English law. They trust that they shall not be thought presumptuous in soliciting in 1819, a privilege, for the beneficial exercise of which (in the opinions of those best able to judge) they were fully prepared, in 1800, 1807, 1811, and 1813.]

Your petitioners further most humbly shew unto your Royal Highness, that, with the increase of population, agriculture has greatly and rapidly increased in this colony; whereby the country has been cleared, vast quantities of land brought into cultivation, and grain has been raised, more than sufficient for our internal consumption. But that, having no foreign market, the demand is limited to that internal consumption, and the cultivator is consequently confined in his exertions. It thus necessarily happens that the surplus grain above the consumption, which he may raise, not only reduces the price by its abundance, but part of it actually goes to waste, and becomes totally useless for want of a market. The loss thus created is double: the expense of cultivating the surplus; and the depreciation of value in the entire crop; whereby,

not only is the general prosperity of the colony greatly retarded, and all spirited exertion damped, but it is exposed to the worst consequences from the occasional overflowing of the river Hawkesbury, which frequently produces scarcity, a calamity that might be most surely and effectually remedied, and indeed entirely prevented, if there were means provided for consuming all the grain the colony has the means of raising.

[The petitioners proceed to state, that the only foreign markets within their reach, are India, the Cape of Good Hope, and Isle of France; countries where grain is raised on as cheap or cheaper terms than as yet it can be in New South Wales: and, in the impossibility of availing themselves of these places, as a resource for their agriculturists, to drain off that surplus produce which may not be demanded for the colony, they propose another remedy, it being rendered still more necessary to devise some means for encouraging the extension of agriculture, by the circumstance that sufficient employment cannot be found for the convict labourers in its present state.]

Your petitioners most humbly submit to your Royal Highness that the only mode of consumption for our surplus grain, and, consequently, the best stimulus and encouragement to agriculture and industry, would be to permit the distillation of spirits from surplus grain, a measure that would operate most beneficially in many points of view. It would effectually encourage and extend agricultural speculation; it would be a resource and provision against times of occasional floods and scarcity, for on such occasions the distilleries could be suspended; it would afford a better and cheaper spirit than that which is imported, viz. generally ardent Bengal and Mauritius rum.

[The petitioners then maintain that no loss would thus arise to the province: nor, say they, would the facility of consuming spirituous liquors be increased by internal distillation. They add,]

It is with peculiar satisfaction, we assure your Royal Highness, that the moral habits and sobriety of our numerous and rapidly increasing rising generation, are such as would reflect the highest credit on any people, and do honour to any country.

Your petitioners further most humbly shew unto your Royal Highness, that this territory, being to the eastward of the Cape of Good Hope, comes within the provisions of a certain Act of Parliament, entitled, "An Act for continuing in the East India Company, for a further term, the possession of the British Territories in India," &c. being the 53d of His Majesty, cap. 155: by the 32d section of which it is enacted, "That no ship or vessel, the registered measurement whereof shall be less than 350 tons, shall sail or pass in any part or the seas to the eastward of the Cape of Good

Hope, or to the westward of the Straights of Magellan, without a licence from the Board of Commissioners for the affairs of India, specially authorizing the same." The colony, from its situation, is also subject to the several Acts of Parliament relating to the South Sea Fishery; and particularly the 35th of His Majesty, cap. 92, sections 7, 19, and 20, whereby the navigation between Great Britain and this territory is restricted to ships and vessels of not less than 350 tons' burthen. That British manufactures, of every description, are regularly and principally in demand in this colony: a demand at the present great in proportion to its increased population, and, with it, progressively and rapidly increasing; but the restrictions arising from the aforesaid provisions of the said several acts of parliament, operate so as to amount almost to a prohibition, first,—to the introduction of British manufactures into the colony; inasmuch as few, if any, of the resident merchants here, are willing or able to employ the large capital, necessarily required to freight of vessels, of the magnitude required by law. We have, consequently, been left to be principally supplied through the medium of the transport ships; a supply casual and uncertain in its nature; insufficient in quantity; generally unsuitable for the market; and frequently furnished at enormously high prices; but which, such as it was, has now been entirely prohibited. Secondly, to exports from this territory to England; because, there being no regular trading ships navigated from hence to Europe, we have no regular means of shipping our colonial produce to the mother country. We are thus driven to the necessity of employing these transport ships, all of which are generally bound to China and India: hence an opportunity of shipping any of our colonial produce to Europe, does but very rarely occur; and when it occurs, the voyage being by way of India, is so circuitous, long, and hazardous, that,—there being no opportunity of insuring, and the freight being very high, it almost puts, as we have already said, an entire stop to the export of our colonial produce: the more so, as it is generally bulky, and therefore unable to sustain heavy freight and expenses. These evils, which not only affect this territory, but also our mother country, would be entirely removed, if vessels of small tonnage were allowed to navigate to and from the colony and England.

And your petitioners further shew unto your Royal Highness, that, from the geographical situation of this territory, commanding the Antarctic seas and its southern coasts, covered with innumerable bays and islands, peculiar facility is afforded to it for the catching of whales, seals, sea elephants, sea cows, and other animals of that sea, from which are procured oil, seal-skins, and other marine productions of great

value in the manufactures of Great Britain, and in the procuring of which, the surplus labour of this territory might be most usefully and beneficially employed. But your petitioners most humbly represent, that the duty in England, imposed on blubber imported from this colony, is 4*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* per ton;—on train oil, 7*l.* per ton;—on sperm oil, or head matter, 21*l.* per ton;—on whale fins, 5*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* per ton: whereas the duties imposed on the same articles imported from His Majesty's colonies in America, are, on blubber, 14*s.*;—on train oil, 2*l.* 16*s.*;—on sperm oil, or head matter, 4*l.* 4*s.*;—and on whale fins, 4*l.*: and the duties imposed on the same articles imported from His Majesty's settlement of Newfoundland, are, on blubber, 14*s.*;—on train oil, 1*l.* 1*s.*;—on sperm, or head matter, 1*l.* 1*s.*;—and whale fins, 2*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* per ton, respectively.

[Then follows a paragraph strongly pressing the good that would arise from taking off these extra duties.]

And your petitioners further most humbly shew unto your Royal Highness, that, from the introduction of Spanish Merino sheep into this colony, we can grow wool as fine as any imported from Spain, in considerable and rapidly increasing quantities; insomuch that we confidently look forward to the period, when fine Merino wool will become our principal staple export to our mother country,—but upon which there is at present a duty of 6*s.* 8*d.* per cwt. imposed in England.

[The petitioners proceed to pray to be placed on a more favourable footing in regard to the duties now imposed on their exports of hides, hoofs, horns, bark, hemp, &c. in all of which they state the colony to be productive.]

And your petitioners further most humbly shew unto your Royal Highness, that, under former governors, the following duties were ordered to be levied in this colony, on the articles under-mentioned, upon their arrival and landing in the colony, whether for colonial consumption, re-shipment, or exportation; viz.—

|  | £ | s. | d. |
|--|---|----|----|
| On each ton of sandal wood...                              | 2 | 10 | 0  |
| On each ton of pearl shells.....                           | 2 | 10 | 0  |
| On each ton of beech le mer...                             | 5 | 0  | 0  |
| On each ton of sperm oil (252 gallons) .....               | 2 | 10 | 0  |
| On each ton of black whale, or other oil.....              | 2 | 0  | 0  |
| On each fur seal skin.....                                 | 0 | 0  | 1½ |
| On each hair do. ....                                      | 0 | 0  | 0½ |
| On each kangaroo do. ....                                  | 0 | 0  | 0½ |
| On each solid foot of timber, whether in log or plank..... | 0 | 1  | 0  |
| On every twenty spars.....                                 | 1 | 0  | 0  |
| On coals per ton.....                                      | 0 | 5  | 0  |

All which articles are of the growth and produce of this territory, and the neighbouring seas and islands: and your petitioners most humbly submit, that the above-mentioned duties, operate completely as a

direct tax upon labour and industry, and yet produce no revenue; and have been so severely felt in the colony as to have put a complete stop to a promising source of colonial trade and employment, as well as entirely ruined our infant shipping interests, colonial coasting trade, and fishery.

Your petitioners, therefore, further most humbly pray, your Royal Highness may be graciously pleased to direct, that instructions may be given to our colonial government, to rescind the said duties, or to allow a drawback upon the export from this territory of the said articles, equal to the duty imposed on the same.

Your petitioners having thus most humbly approached your Royal Highness, with a statement of the disabilities, restraints, and inconveniences under which the inhabitants of this His Majesty's peculiarly British and rising colony labours—with regard to the insufficiency of its jurisprudence—the obstructions to its agriculture—the impediments to its communications with the mother country—the operation of the duties applying to its productions exported to England, as well as of those colonial duties imposed on its imports—they do most humbly trust, that your Royal Highness will lend a gracious ear to their complaints, and, of your royal clemency, direct, that this His Majesty's colony may be put on the same footing with His Majesty's other colonies, as regards the several matters herein before humbly set forth.

And your petitioners, as in duty bound, will ever pray.

#### ISLE OF FRANCE.

The remarks made in our last number, under the head of the Isle of France, have derived increased importance from the arrival of an angry proclamation, by Major-General Sir Ralph Darling, who has succeeded Major-General Hall in the military command, and temporary civil government of that colony, and from the arrival, trial, and conviction, by a Middlesex jury, of fresh persons accused of Slave Trading. The Major-General declares that "every culprit shall be transmitted to England."

This proceeding, so distinctly at variance with the constitutional rights which are secured to every subject of the realm, and to every stranger falling under our jurisdiction,—the right of being tried by a *jury of the country*, that is, by sworn inhabitants of the immediate place of the alleged crime, having been remonstrated against by a correspondent of a daily paper, an answer was indirectly attempted to be offered by the Solicitor-General, in opening the case, and by Mr. Justice

Burrough, in his charge. It was said, first, (what is unquestionable,) that the law authorized the Court to proceed, and, secondly, that the law is justifiable, because it is not to be expected that a colonial jury of slave-holders would find a verdict against the accused. This general imputation upon slave-holders, was all that could be decently offered in public upon the question, though it admits the ready answer, that such an imputation would apply equally to all our slave colonies, and ought, therefore, to excite general colonial alarm; were it not the fact that the general principle, thus laid down, is not acted upon, but that, as appeared in the former number of the London Magazine, colonial juries of slave-holders have been resorted to, both in Jamaica and in Antigua, and have, in both instances, found verdicts against the accused. It remains, therefore, as before, that the Isle of France alone is practically exposed to the injury complained of.

Of five persons, who were sent to England, on this occasion, by General Darling, only two have been brought to trial, the remaining three having been set at liberty by the Privy Council! If any thing were wanting to show the oppressive operation of this practice of transmitting every culprit to England, the fact must be sufficient—that three persons have been so sent, who, upon an inquiry into their cases by the Privy Council, have been dismissed without trial, without compensation, without regard to consequences, and without remedy! The two who were tried and convicted, have been sentenced to transportation for 14 years.

It remains to be hoped that the question will be brought before Parliament at its ensuing meeting. The possibility of following the practice

adopted by Generals Hall and Darling, has arisen out of a legislative mistake; and it is understood that the most distinguished and most enlightened of the members of the African Institution, the body from whom the act in operation has emanated, are satisfied of its impropriety, and desirous of the remedy.

In stating the population of the Isle of France, in our last, the numbers should have been given thus:—whites, 25,000; slaves, 80,000; total, 105,000

#### CANADA.

*Emigration.*—In the spring of the year 1817, Mr. Kendall (author of an argument for the abolition of appeal of murder) printed a proposal for the establishment of two classes of institutions,\* adapted severally to the relief of the labouring and other classes of the community.† The great problem to be solved, in regard to colonial emigration, in this: that while, on the one hand, we are told that there are vast regions open to the enterprise of adventurers; on the other, it has been but too clearly proved, that of the multitudes who have gone in search of the proffered blessing, whether in the United States, or in British America, thousands have experienced the severest misery, and even become a burden on the charity and property of the persons they have found aboard. In these circumstances, two conclusions might very excusably be drawn, both forbidding the act of encouraging emigration: the first, that the prospects held out to emigrants are wholly delusive; the other, that, whatever might be said by theorists on this side of the water, the practical sentiments of those who inhabit the colonies must be against emigration, as productive only of demands upon themselves, and suffering to the new comers.‡ Mr. Kendall,

\* A proposal for a metropolitan, provincial, and colonial Institution, for the assistance of emigrants to his Majesty's colonies, and for the establishment of new drawing schools. By E. H. Kendall, Esq. F.A.S. London. 1817.

† Mr. Kendall had previously proposed, as the means of immediate relief, in the winter of 1816, an issue of several millions of Exchequer Bills, and had the satisfaction to see the principle acted upon by the Chancellor of the Exchequer on the opening of parliament.

‡ "The sufferings to which many individuals have been exposed, who have emigrated to his Majesty's foreign possessions, unconnected, and unprovided with any capital, or even the means of support, and having been very afflicting to themselves, and equally burdensome to the colonies to which they have proceeded," &c.—*Circular letter from the Colonial Department, to applicants for the Cape of Good Hope.*

from a local acquaintance with British North America, contends that there is more than one kind of *assistance* necessary for emigrants, and that the most needful of all is *information*; that it is system, method, and regulation, that are wanted, to give adventurers beyond the Atlantic, or in any other direction, a fair chance of success. He shows, also, that the colonies are far from considering themselves overstocked, but actually call for thousands upon thousands, provided they come with *method*, and are even ready to assist them in their purposes. Mr. Kendall cites language of this kind from the public prints of Nova Scotia; but the verisimilitude and reasonableness of his views, must be considered as established, by the terms of an address of the Quebec Emigrant Society, an institution founded on the principles advanced by Mr. Kendall, and sanctioned by the names of the Lord Bishop of Quebec, three of the Judges of Lower Canada, and several other public officers, together with merchants, &c.

"The Members of the Quebec Emigrants' Society," say these philanthropists, "are anxious to have it understood, in the first place, that it is by no means the principle of their body, nor the object of the present measure, to discourage emigration. On the contrary, they profess themselves deeply sensible of the benefits thence resulting to these colonies—they truly appreciate these benefits; they would rejoice also in contributing to relieve their mother-country from the evils of a redundant population; and they would feel that they had much to answer for, were they to become instrumental in checking this valuable influx of inhabitants into a country, the very face of which invites them, as it were, to the experiment, and opens to their industry vast tracts of land unreclaimed from the wilderness, which are capable, under the hand of art, of yielding the means of sustenance, and the comforts of life, to many millions of human beings.

"But," they add, "the local experience of the last few years has amply shown, that some measures are

necessary, to place the system of emigration under proper regulations—to provide against many evils and much misery arising from the ignorance and mismanagement of the persons who emigrate—and to preserve, with the smallest possible deductions, the advantages on either side accruing."

"It might be productive," they then observe, "of incalculable benefit to the cause of emigration, if certain associations were formed in different places at home, composed of intelligent and benevolent individuals, who would open a correspondence with the society here, and furnish information to the parties on the spot."

It is the "maintaining a correspondence" with societies in Canada, and other colonies, which forms one of the main features of Mr. Kendall's plan, as affording to the Metropolitan Institution the means of giving the requisite information to individual adventurers; and that institution he proposes to establish, either by the aid of His Majesty's Government, or by that of benevolent individuals, or both.

In co-operating, however, with those who recommend emigration to Canada, and especially emigration founded upon accurate acquaintance with the prospect, it is proper not to conceal, that the warmest and most fertile parts of that vast territory are found to be, in their present state, the least healthy. As remarked in our last, in reference to Algoa Bay, warm humid countries, naturally covered with forest, uniformly become unhealthy when first cleared. A lapse of years, and sometimes of ages, together with much human industry, is often necessary to effect a second operation, namely, that of *draining*. In the interim, fever and ague visit the new settlers in every autumn, and none but the stoutest escape an eventual mortality. The most fertile parts of the state of New York afford another example of this truth, so little understood in England. The emaciated forms, and premature pale faces, of their settlers, are sufficiently notorious in North America!

## PUBLIC DOCUMENTS.

[It is our intention to present our readers with lists of all new Acts of Parliament as they pass, together with brief notices of their objects and provisions. We begin with the six acts passed in December 1819, for the security of the public peace, and the punishment of the publishers of seditious and blasphemous libels; and of these, on account of their great public importance, we shall give more copious abstracts than is generally intended. On this account, the regular order of the Chapters is not, in the present instance, adhered to.]

## NEW ACTS

*Passed in the Second Session of the Sixth Parliament of Great Britain and Ireland, 60 Geo. III. (1819-20.)*

1. Chap. I. To prevent the training of Persons to the Use of Arms and to the Practice of Military Evolutions and Exercises. *Passed 11th December, 1819. (1 sheet.)*

By this act, all meetings and assemblies of persons (in England, Scotland, or Ireland,) for training and drilling themselves, or being trained or drilled to the use of arms, or for practising military exercise, movements, or evolutions, without authority from the crown, or the lieutenant, or two justices of peace of the county, are prohibited as dangerous to the peace and security of the king's subjects and of his government.

Persons attending any such meeting for the purpose of training others, are made punishable by transportation not exceeding seven years, or imprisonment not exceeding two years, in the discretion of the court; and the parties attending to be trained, are punishable by fine and by imprisonment not exceeding two years. All such meetings may be dispersed by any justice of peace, or constable, or peace officer, or any person acting in aid of them; and the parties present may be arrested, and committed for trial, or held to bail. Such parties, if not prosecuted under this act, may be indicted, &c., as before making the act.—Offenders are to be prosecuted within six months, and actions against justices, &c. for executing the act, are limited to the like period.

The duration of this act is permanent; but it may be altered during the session.

2. Chap. II. To authorize justices of the peace, in certain disturbed counties, to seize and detain arms, collected or kept for purposes dangerous to the public peace. To continue in force until 25th March, 1822. *Passed 18th Dec. 1819. (1 sheet.)*

The counties, &c. mentioned in the act are, Lancaster, Chester, York, (West Riding,) Warwick, Stafford, Derby, Leicester, Nottingham, Cumberland, Westmorland, Northumberland, Durham, Renfrew, and Lanark, the towns of Newcastle on Tyne, and Nottingham, and the city of Coventry. But it may be extended by the royal proclamation, by advice of the

privy council, to any other counties or ridings of Great Britain, on representation from the justices at quarter or general sessions, or any general meeting of the lieutenantancy of the county, in consequence of any disturbance therein: and by like proclamation, the counties named in the act, and subjected to the powers, may be freed for its operation. This act does not extend to Ireland, in which acts similar to this have long been in force.

One justice of the peace, (on information of one witness, on oath, of his belief that any pike, pike head, or spear, is in the possession of any person, or in any house or place; or that any dirk, dagger, pistol, gun, or other weapon is, for any purpose dangerous to the public peace, in the possession of any one, or in any house or place,) may issue his warrant to any constable or peace officer, to search for, and seize such pike, &c. or other weapon; and the constable acting under such warrant, or any one in his aid, may search for, and seize such weapons: and if admission is refused, may enter by force, by day or by night, into the house or place, and shall detain the arms and weapons found, unless the owner shall prove to the satisfaction of the justice that such arms or weapons were not kept for any purpose dangerous to the public peace. If the justice refuse to restore the arms, the party may appeal to the quarter sessions, who may order the arms to be restored, or to be kept in safe custody, as they shall think proper. Any justice, or constable, &c. acting under his warrant, may arrest and detain any person found carrying arms at such time and manner as may afford just grounds of suspicion that they are carried for purposes dangerous to the public peace. The party shall be committed (or bailed) to take his trial for a misdemeanour, at the ensuing assizes or sessions. Concurrent jurisdiction is given to the justices of adjoining counties to act in each county. Actions against justices of peace, for any thing done in the execution of the act, are limited to six months. The act may be amended in the present session.

3. Chap. IV. To prevent delay in the administration of justice in cases of misdemeanour. *Passed 23d December, 1819. (1 sheet.)*

This act is permanent: it extends to

*England and Ireland.* It enacts, that where any person shall be prosecuted in the Court of King's Bench at Westminster or Dublin, for any misdemeanour, either by information or indictment, found in, or removed to such courts, and shall appear in person, in term time, to answer thereto, such defendant shall not be allowed to imparl till the following term; but shall plead or demur *within four days*; or, in default thereof, judgment shall be entered against him. Where the defendant appears by attorney, a rule of court shall be made to require such plea or demurrer. The court may, on sufficient cause, allow further time to plead or demur.—Persons prosecuted for misdemeanours, by indictment at any sessions of the peace, &c. having been committed or bailed twenty days at least before the sessions, shall plead to such indictment, and the trial shall proceed at such same sessions, unless a *certiorari* be delivered before the jury is sworn for the trial. Such *certiorari* may be issued before indictment found, as well as after.—Persons committed or bailed at any period less than twenty days before any session, or having twenty days' notice of an indictment found against them at a session subsequent to their being committed or bailed, shall plead, and be tried at such subsequent session. Indictments removed from cities or towns corporate, into counties, under 38 Geo. III. c. 52, shall be tried according to this act; with power to the court to extend the time of pleading.—In all prosecutions for misdemeanours by the attorney general, the court, if applied to for that purpose, shall order a copy of the information or indictment to be delivered to the defendant, after his appearance, free of expense. And if any such prosecution shall not be brought to trial within twelve months after the plea of Not Guilty pleaded on application by the Defendant, giving twelve days' notice to the attorney general, the court may make an order to authorize the defendant to bring on his trial, and which he may do accordingly, unless a *nolle prosequi* be entered. The act is not to extend to informations of *quo warranto*, or for non repair of bridges or highways.

4. Chap. VI. For more effectually preventing *sedition meetings and assemblies*; to continue in force until the end of the session of Parliament next after five years from the passing of the act: *passed 24th December, 1819.* (4 sheets.)

This act extends to the whole of the United Kingdom. No meeting of any description of persons exceeding the number of fifty, (except county meetings called by the lord lieutenant, &c. or sheriff, or by five acting justices, or by the major part of the grand jury at the assizes, or corporate meetings of cities or boroughs called by the mayor, &c. or ward meetings called by the

aldermen, or meetings of any corporate bodies,) shall be held "for the purpose, or on pretext of, deliberating on any public grievance, or on any matter relating to any trade, manufacture, business, or profession, or upon any matter in church or state, or for considering, proposing, or agreeing to any petition, complaint, remonstrance, declaration, resolution, or address upon the subject thereof," unless in the parish or township where the persons calling the meeting inhabit; nor unless a written notice of the time and place, and purpose of the meeting shall be delivered personally to a resident justice of the peace six days previous to the meeting, subscribed with the names and places of abode of seven householders resident in the parish. The justice, within two days after receipt of the notice, may alter the time or place, or both, of the meeting, to any time within four days after the time mentioned, and to any convenient place in the parish: and the meeting shall not be held at any other time or place.—Such meeting, when held, shall not be adjourned to any other time or place; but every such adjourned meeting shall be an unlawful assembly.—No person (except justices of the peace, sheriffs, under sheriffs, and constables,) shall attend at any such county meeting, unless he be a freeholder, copyholder, heritor, or householder of, or inhabitant usually residing in, the county: or at meetings of corporate bodies, unless he be a freeman or member; or unless he be a householder, or usually resident inhabitant, or freeholder, or copyholder there (of 50l. a-year, having been twelve months in possession,) in any city, borough, town corporate, parish, or township where such meeting shall be held.—Members of parliament may attend meetings at the place for which they serve; and electors may attend any meeting called by the mayor or head officer of any city, borough, town, or place.—Persons attending any such meetings (not having such right as given by the act,) shall, on conviction, be punished by fine, and by imprisonment not exceeding twelve months, in the discretion of the court.—Justices of peace, sheriffs, mayors, &c. are authorized to be present at the place where any such meeting is holden, or intended to be holden, and there to do all such acts as the case may require, or as by law they are entitled to do; and may take to their assistance any number of constables, &c.—Any meeting holden in pursuance of any notice which shall express or purport that any law may be altered otherwise than by parliament, or shall tend to incite hatred or contempt of the King's person, or of the government, shall be deemed an unlawful assembly.—If any persons shall unlawfully attend any meeting authorized by the act, any justice, sheriff, &c. may make proclamation for them to depart; and if

they do not depart in a quarter of an hour, they shall, upon conviction, be adjudged guilty of felony, and be liable to be transported for seven years.—The form of the proclamation is given in the act; after the making of which, any person lawfully attending at the meeting may seize the intruders, and carry them before a justice. Any justice or sheriff, at any meeting held contrary to the act, or at any meeting where any persons not entitled to attend, refuse to depart, may, by proclamation, order the meeting to disperse; and if twelve of them continue together half an hour after such proclamation, every person continuing shall be guilty of felony, punishable by seven years' transportation.—If any justice present at any such meeting shall think fit to order any persons attending contrary to the act, or proceeding to maintain any proposition for altering any law, except by authority of Parliament, or holding any discourse for the purpose of inciting the people to hatred or contempt of the King, or government, or constitution, to be taken into custody, and such justice or any peace officer shall be forcibly obstructed in taking such persons into custody, proclamation shall be made for dispersing the meeting; and persons continuing together more than half an hour afterwards, shall be felons.—All persons obstructing justices in making proclamation, or in dispersing meeting, &c. are likewise declared felons; in all cases punishable by seven years' transportation.—Justices and their assistants shall be indemnified in case any persons are killed, maimed, or hurt in resisting the dispersing any such assembly.—The act is declared not to extend to any meeting or assembly wholly holden in any room or apartment of any house or building; nor to any meeting held in any county or place after the issuing, and before the return, of any writ for election of members of parliament for such county or place.—No persons shall attend meetings armed with any gun, pistol, sword, dagger, pike, bludgeon, or other offensive weapon, on penalty of fine, and imprisonment not exceeding two years: but this not to extend to justices, sheriffs, or peace officers, or their assistants.—No persons shall attend, proceed to, or be present, at any such meetings, with any flag, banner, or ensign, or displaying any device, badge, or emblem, or with any drum, or military music, or in military array, or order, on penalty of fine and two years' imprisonment. Justices at sessions may subdivide parishes having more than twenty-thousand inhabitants, into two, or more divisions of ten thousand persons, each for the purpose of this act. And extra parochial places shall be considered as parishes. Meetings under this act may be held in parishes in Westminster, within one mile from Westminster Hall, but not in

Palace Yard, during the sitting of Parliament. This act declared, not to authorise any meetings otherwise contrary to law. Offenders not prosecuted under this act may be indicted on or before passing the act.

The rest of the act relates to places for lectures or debates; all such places where money is paid for admission, are declared disorderly, unless licensed under this act. Penalty on persons opening such places, £100, and on persons acting as chairman, &c., or receiving money for admission, £20. Magistrates may demand admission into such places. Penalty on persons refusing such admission, £20. Such places may be yearly licensed by justices at sessions on payment of 1s; and such license may be revoked in the discretion of the justices. Justices may visit such licensed places at the time of lecture. Lectures in the Universities, Inns of Court, Gresham College, the East-India College, &c., and all Incorporated Societies, and Schoolmasters are excepted. Licenses declared voidable by two justices of the peace, if the place is commonly used for lectures of a seditious, irreligious, or immoral tendency. Prosecutions under the act are limited to six months after the offence; as are also actions against magistrates for any thing done in execution of the act.

5. Chap. VIII. For the more effectual prevention and punishment of *Blasphemous and Seditious Libels*, passed 30th Dec. 1819. (1 sheet.)

For making more effectual provisions for these purposes, it is enacted, that, when any verdict or judgment by default shall be had against any person for composing, printing, or publishing any blasphemous libel, or any seditious libel, tending to bring into hatred or contempt the person of the King, or the Regent, or the government and constitution by law established, or either house of Parliament, or to incite the subjects to attempt the alteration of any matter in church or state, otherwise than by lawful means, the court may make an order for the seizure of all copies of such libels in the possession of the offender; or any other person (named in the order) for his use, on oath that such copies are in the possession of such other person; and any justice of peace, constable, &c. acting under such order, may search for such copies in the house, &c. of the offender, &c.; and on refusal of admission may enter by force by day, and carry away and detain all copies of the libel so found. In case of arrest, or reversal of judgment, the copies so seized shall be restored free of expense; and on final judgment against the offender, shall be disposed of as the court shall direct. Like powers are given to the Court of Justiciary in Scotland.

If any person shall, after the passing of

this Act be legally convicted of having (after the passing of the Act) composed, printed, or published, any blasphemous libel, or any such seditious libel, as aforesaid, and shall after being so convicted, offend a second time, and be thereof legally convicted before any court of oyer and terminer, or before the Court of King's Bench, such person may on such second conviction be adjudged, at the discretion of the court, either to suffer punishment as in cases of a high misdemeanour, or to be banished from the United Kingdom, and all other parts of his Majesty's dominions, for such term of years as the court shall order. If the party banished does not depart within thirty days after sentence, he may be conveyed to such parts out of his Majesty's dominions as shall be directed by the Privy Council. Persons found at large within the United Kingdom, &c. after forty days from the sentence, or before the expiration of the term of banishment, may be transported for fourteen years. Nothing in this Act shall alter the law or practice of Scotland, as to the punishment of persons for composing, printing, or publishing any blasphemous or seditious libel.

This Act is permanent, and extends to the whole of the United Kingdom.

6. Chap. IX. To subject certain publications to the duties of *Stamps on Newspapers*, and to make other regulations for restraining the abuses arising from the publication of *Blasphemous and Seditious Libels*, passed 30th Dec. 1819. (3 sheets.)

The preamble recites that pamphlets and printed papers containing observations on public events and occurrences, tending to excite hatred and contempt of the government and constitution, and also vilifying our holy religion, have lately been published in great numbers, and at small prices, and it is expedient that the same should be restrained; it is therefore enacted, that all pamphlets and papers, containing any public news, intelligence, or occurrences, or any remarks or observations thereon, or upon any matter in church or state, printed in any part of the United Kingdom for sale, and published periodically, at intervals, not exceeding twenty-six days, where any of the said pamphlets, parts, or numbers, shall not exceed two sheets, or shall be published for a less sum than sixpence (exclusive of the duty) shall be deemed and taken to be newspapers within the true intent and meaning of all acts relating to newspapers, and shall be subject to like duties of stamps, and printed and published under like regulations as newspapers: and all the clauses of all acts relating to newspapers, are extended to such publications. The sheet of paper is defined as twenty-one inches long, and seventeen broad. No cover or blank leaf is to be

deemed part of a pamphlet. All such pamphlets not exceeding two sheets, or at a price less than 6d., published at intervals exceeding twenty-six days, shall be published on the first day of every month, or within two days after—penalty £20.—Pamphlets published at intervals not exceeding twenty-six days, shall have the full price and date printed on them, and if of the price of 6d. or upwards, shall not be sold for less than 6d., within two months after the date. Penalty £20.—A proviso is made for the allowances to dealers; and that pamphlets liable to the newspapers stamp shall not be liable to the stamp regulations of pamphlets.

No person shall print or publish for sale any newspaper, or any pamphlet containing news, &c., or remarks thereon, which shall not exceed two sheets, or which shall be published for sale at a less price than 6d., until he shall have entered into a recognizance before a Baron of the Exchequer, (if in London, Westminster, Edinburgh, or Dublin) or in the country, until executing a bond before a justice of peace to the King, with two or three sufficient sureties, in all cases the principal in £500, in London, or within twenty miles thereof, and £200 elsewhere, and the sureties in a like sum in the whole, conditioned that such printer or publisher shall pay every such fine or penalty as may be imposed upon, or adjudged against him, by reason of any conviction for printing any blasphemous or seditious libel. Penalty for publishing newspapers, not having given such surety, £20 for each offence. If sureties pay the whole, or any part of the money for which they are bound, or become bankrupt, &c. securities must be renewed. Sureties may withdraw from recognizances, on giving twenty days' notice to Stamp Office, and new security shall then be given. Pamphlets liable to duty under this act shall be delivered to the Stamp Office in the same manner as newspapers.—Penalty on selling pamphlets or papers unstamped £20.

The courts at Westminster and Dublin, or any judge thereof, or the quarter sessions, or any justice of peace before whom any person charged with having printed any blasphemous, seditious, or malicious libel, shall be brought to give bail, shall make it part of the condition of the recognizance, that the person so charged shall be of good behaviour during the recognizance.

Penalties may be recovered by action in the superior courts, &c., or (not exceeding £100, for penalties incurred in one day) before two justices of peace, with appeal to quarter sessions. All actions, &c. to be prosecuted in the name of the Attorney General or Solicitor of the stamp duties.

*Exceptions from the operation of the Act.*—Acts of Parliament, Proclamations, Forms of Prayer, Orders of Council, &c.

published by authority. Printed Votes, or Papers of Parliament, School Books, Books of Devotion, Piety, or Charity, Daily Accounts, Bills of Goods, imported or exported, Weekly Bills of Mortality, Prices Current, or any matter wholly of a commercial nature, works reprinted, and republished in numbers, if after two years from the first publication, and if not first published in numbers.

## MONTHLY BULLETIN.

Windsor Castle, Jan. 1.

His Majesty's disorder has undergone no sensible alteration. His Majesty's bodily health has partaken of some of the infirmities of age, but has been generally good during the last month.

(Signed) H. HALFORD, J. WILLIS,  
M. BAILLIE, R. WILLIS.  
W. HEBERDEN,

## DEATH OF HIS ROYAL HIGHNESS THE DUKE OF KENT.

(From the London Gazette, January 25, 1820.)

*Whitchall, Jan. 24.*—Yesterday morning, at ten o'clock, departed this life, at Sidmouth, after a short illness, His Royal Highness Edward Duke of Kent and Strathern, His Majesty's fourth son, to the great grief of all the Royal Family.

*Lord Chamberlain's Office, Jan. 25.*—Orders for the court's going into mourning, on Sunday next, the 30th instant, for His late Royal Highness the Duke of Kent and Strathern, fourth son of His Majesty, viz.

The Ladies to wear black bombazines, plain muslin or long lawn, crape hoods, shamoy shoes and gloves, and crape fans.

Undress—Dark Norwich crape.

The Gentlemen to wear black cloth, without buttons on the sleeves or pockets, plain muslin or long lawn cravats and weepers, shamoy shoes and gloves, crape hatbands, and black swords and buckles.

Undress—Dark grey frocks.

*Heralds-College, Jan. 25.*—(The Deputy Earl Marshal's Order for a General Mourning for His late Royal Highness the Duke of Kent.)—In pursuance of the commands of His Royal Highness the Prince Regent, acting in the name and on behalf of His Majesty;

These are to give public notice, that it is expected that upon the present melancholy occasion, of the death of His late Royal Highness Edward Duke of Kent and Strathern, fourth son of His Majesty, all persons do put themselves into decent mourning, the said mourning to begin on Sunday next the 30th instant.

HENRY HOWARD-MOLYNEUX-HOWARD,  
Deputy Earl Marshal.

*Horse-Guards, Jan. 25.*—It is not required that the Officers of the Army should wear any other mourning on the present melancholy occasion, than a black crape round their left arms with their uniforms.

By command of His Royal Highness the Commander in Chief.

HARRY CALVERT, Adjutant-General.

*Admiralty-Office, Jan. 25.*—His Royal Highness the Prince Regent does not require that the Officers of His Majesty's Fleet or Marines should wear any other mourning on the present melancholy occasion of the death of His late Royal Highness the Duke of Kent and Strathern, than a black crape round their left arms with their uniforms.

J. W. CROKER.

## INCOME and CHARGE on the CONSOLIDATED FUND

In the Quarters ended 5th January, 1819 and 1820.

| INCOME.  | Quarters ended. |                | CHARGE.                      | Quarters ended. |                |
|--|-----------------|----------------|------------------------------|-----------------|----------------|
|  | 5th Jan. 1819.  | 5th Jan. 1820. |                              | 5th Jan. 1819.  | 5th Jan. 1820. |
|  | £.              | £.             |                              | £.              | £.             |
| Customs .....  | 1,530,779       | 1,953,437      | Exchequer Annuities .....    | 33,697          | 29,118         |
| Excise .....   | 5,113,923       | 5,746,359      | South Sea Company .....      | 168,190         | 168,184        |
| Stamps .....   | 1,530,532       | 1,503,322      | Bank, on their Capital ..... | 89,125          | 89,125         |
| Post Office .....  | 319,000         | 378,000        | Dividends .....              | 9,432,278       | 9,461,090      |
| Assessed Taxes .....   | 2,303,778       | 2,301,375      | National Debt .....          | 2,927,200       | 3,027,848      |
| Land Taxes .....   | 408,366         | 442,955        | Civil List .....             | 257,000         | 242,000        |
| Miscellaneous .....  | 133,381         | 177,074        | Pensions .....               | 113,851         | 118,000        |
| Unappropriated War Duties ..   | 44,735          | 11,491         | Imperial Annuities .....     | 236,713         | 121,712        |
|  |                 |                | Other Charges .....          | 149,946         | 142,923        |
|  | 11,384,494      | 12,514,513     |                              | 13,410,000      | 13,400,000     |
| To be brought from Supplies, being the Amount issued out of the Consolidated Fund of Ireland ..... | 794,664         | 574,340        | Income .....                 | 12,179,158      | 13,088,853     |
|  | 12,179,158      | 13,088,853     | Deficiency .....             | 1,230,842       | 311,147        |

## FOREIGN NEWS.

*France.*—It appears by the Paris papers that the Minister of Finance had presented to the Chamber of Deputies a very liberal project of law, by which the government gave up their claim to considerable sums due to them from the purchasers of the "national domains" (the property acquired in the revolution), thus securing them against all chance of emigrant reclaimings.

The *Moniteur* has given an article of considerable length relative to the law of succession, as it affects the property of foreigners. It commences with quoting an expression used by the Chancellor of the Exchequer upon this subject in the House of Commons, and stating the expediency of rectifying the error which appears to have arisen; it then proceeds to quote a number of laws, and also the 13th article of the treaty of Utrecht, and to show their application in various cases with regard to the property of foreigners, deceased, as affecting real and personal property, and as affecting foreigners domiciled in France, or who have children domiciled in France. This explanation, involving minute dicta of French law, is for the greater part of little interest. The main point, regarding the French funds, which was expressly alluded to by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, is clearly elucidated; it appearing beyond all doubt, that *rentes*, or French stock, in the possession of foreigners, may be disposed of by them, or devolve, in case of intestacy, according to the laws of their own country; and that the English possessors of *rentes*, in particular, may dispose of them with perfect facility; or the *rentes* are disposed of, in case of intestacy, according to their own laws.

Savary, Duke of Rovigo, who was with Napoleon when he went on board the *Bellerophon*, has surrendered himself to free himself from the charge of contumacy, and been acquitted.

The letters of pardon granted by the King to M. De Lavalette, have been dispatched to the Cour Royale of Strasburgh, before which he is to be summoned, after surrendering himself a prisoner.

*Prussia.*—The King of Prussia has dismissed from his councils Humboldt and Van Boyen, the two most popular ministers, and supplied their places with others not so much in favour with the people.

A Dutchman has arrived with the ordinance of the King of Prussia, for strictly prohibiting the introduction into his dominions of any newspaper in the German language, published either in England or France; and of all papers published in the Netherlands, except with licence of the Prussian Ambassador at Brussels. A penalty of 10 dollars is annexed to the violation of this decree, and attaches with equal

force to the transmission of papers through the Prussian states, as to their introduction for perusal by Prussian subjects.

The Nuremberg Correspondent contains the following article relative to the affairs of Prussia:—The investigation relative to treasonable practices is prosecuted with the greatest activity by the commission appointed for that purpose. This commission, which, according to the prevailing opinion, consists of the most upright men, experiences general confidence at Berlin. Several persons who were among the first arrested have been set free. This has happened with respect to the two students, Lieber and Ulrich, and also Dr. Jung. The student Wesselhoft, of Jena, is liberated. The prisoners were very well treated during their confinement, and will, doubtless, when the investigation is completed, obtain a public declaration of their honourable acquittal. The investigation relative to Jahn is not yet finished. Jahn, Follonius, and Von Muhlenfels, are in Berlin. The wife of Jahn is allowed to visit him.

The journals have given, under the head of Berlin, the letter of a Prussian professor, to the mother of Sandt, after his assassination of Kotzebue, consoling her for the fall, and apologizing for the deed of her son; and the order of his Prussian Majesty, dismissing the professor from his chair, on account of this detestable production. The letter in question was evidently not written so much for the purpose of alleviating the distress which the parent must have felt for the fate and crime of her son, as for being published to the world. The reasoning which it contains is as confused as its tendency is mischievous.

*Spain.*—By accounts from the Peninsula, there appear strong grounds for believing that an alarming insurrection has arisen in the heart of Spain. The last French mail, which usually conveys the Spanish letters, brought none from Cadiz, and very few from Seville or Madrid; and these latter appeared all to have been opened. They were confined in general to the mere details of business, and contained scarcely a hint of what was passing in the interior. This absence of all information from Spain direct, excited a strong sensation among the merchants connected with that country; the arrival of a Lisbon mail, however, which sailed on the 15th, supplied in some measure the desired information, though the details are still imperfect. It is stated in letters from Badajos, of the 12th, that the insurrection broke out on the first, among the troops stationed in the neighbourhood of Cadiz, and that their first step was to secure the person of Calderon, the Commander-in-Chief. The number of the insurgents is variously stated; some letters

computing them at 15,000, and others at 23,000 men: there is little doubt that their force is extremely formidable. On the second inst., a large body of them marched to Port St. Mary's, of which they took quiet possession; they afterwards proceeded to the isle of St. Leon, and, by a bold manœuvre, succeeded in taking Cisneros, the Minister of Marine, into custody. This minister, it will be recollected, repaired to the isle of St. Leon immediately on his nomination, to superintend the fitting out of the grand expedition. The following day was employed in an attack on the Trocadero, or naval arsenal of St. Leon, which, according to some accounts, after a slight resistance, fell into their hands. During these two days, it is not stated that any measures were adopted by the authorities at Cadiz to check the progress of this alarming revolt. On the fourth, the insurgents attempted Cadiz itself, with about 2,000 men; but the governor, with a force of 1,500, of whom 250 were soldiers, and the remainder workmen, received them so warmly, that they fell back with the loss of seven men killed. Some accounts state, that this repulse was effected by the blowing up of the bridge. The next day, which is the latest intelligence from Cadiz, the insurgents renewed their attempt with a force of 5,000 men, the issue of which is not certain, though one account states it to have been successful. At the same time, so complete a state of organization had the insurrection assumed, that the insurgents were enabled to send off another detachment, also consisting of 5,000 men, for Seville, in order to attack that city, and to secure to their party the regiment of Royal Carabineers, who were supposed to be imbued with the same spirit of disaffection to the government. Among several persons of eminence who had fallen into the hands of the insurgents, was Maurel, the Commissioner of the Navy. No names of officers commanding the insurrectionary army have reached us in an unquestionable shape; but, from the general discontent among them, it is believed that they are numerous, and of rank. Their movements, indeed, show all the regularity of an army in a complete state of organization. The above is the substance of the letters transmitted by way of Portugal.

*The United States.*—The President's message to Congress has been received.

Mr. Monroe sets out with the disappointment he has felt at the Spanish king's refusal to ratify the cession of the Floridas. The Chevalier Onis had, in the course of his long protracted negotiations, referred more than once for instructions to the court of Madrid. The Spanish ministry were thus apprised of every step by which he advanced or receded; they were fully cognizant of every provision in the treaty; and even while his Catholic Majesty withholds his ratification from the act, he does not pretend that his envoy had exceeded his instructions. The President was further encouraged in his expectation, by the knowledge that the British and French governments, and by a belief that the court of Russia, had declared their opinions and wishes to be unequivocally in favour of the ratification of the treaty by king Ferdinand. The President goes on to propose, that a law shall be made for carrying the treaty into execution, *non obstante* the absence of the required forms on the part of his Catholic Majesty. He tells the Congress, that the latter monarch is about to send an explanatory mission to the United States; and that the courtesy due from one nation to another ought to induce them to hear the story of the Spaniards; but that they ought to act on the presumption, that whatever explanation the Spanish envoy may choose to afford, they must "not be diverted from their purpose," and that the law for taking possession of the Floridas ought still to pass, but in a contingent form. The President fairly avows, the United States "must have peace on the Florida frontier;" and the United States' citizens must "be indemnified for losses so long sustained." In other words, we must take possession of the Floridas, by fair means, or by force.

The relations between Great Britain and the United States occupy a short portion of the message. The sum of what the President communicates on that head is, that having found it impracticable to obtain from England a more unrestrained and ample intercourse between the United States and the British Colonies, both in the West Indies and on the continent, he recommends to Congress further "prohibitory provisions" in the laws relating to that intercourse.

The speech professes a strict neutrality between Spain and South America, *quoad* the past; but throws out a hint or two of what may happen hereafter.

#### DOMESTIC NEWS.

*The Duke of Kent.*—(Extracted from the Times of 25th January).—With deep concern we announce to the public the death of this Prince. The intelligence arrived in town yesterday forenoon, that is Royal Highness expired at ten o'clock on Sunday morning. His complaint, as our

readers are already informed, was inflammation of the lungs, so violent as to baffle the utmost efforts of medical skill. The bleeding and other remedies unavoidably resorted to on such occasions were calculated to reduce the strength of the patient if they do not remove the disorder. In the present

instance, unfortunately, they failed of giving relief; and the robust frame of his Royal Highness sunk into complete exhaustion, from which the resources of art, and the powers of a naturally fine constitution, were alike unable to restore him.

His Royal Highness was tall in stature, of a manly and noble presence. His manners were affable, condescending, dignified, and engaging; his conversation animated; his information varied and copious; his memory exact and retentive; his intellectual power quick, strong, and masculine; he resembled the King in many of his tastes and propensities; he was an early riser, a close economist of his time; temperate in eating; indifferent to wine, though a lover of society; and heedless of slight indisposition, from confidence in the general strength of his constitution; a kind master, a punctual and courteous correspondent, a steady friend, and an affectionate brother.

Edward, Duke of Kent and Strathern, 4th son of George III. was born on the 2d November, 1767. At 18 years of age he was sent to Germany by his Majesty's command, and resided successively at Luneburg and Hanover until he had almost completed his 20th year. During this period his "whole income consisted of an allowance of 1,000*l.* per annum, of which his Governor had the sole disposal, except of one guinea and a half per week, allowed to his Royal Highness for pocket-money." His Royal Highness then passed two years more at Geneva, without any further increase of income. He was an enthusiast to the profession of a soldier, for which he was destined from early life. The impetuous bravery of his Royal Highness was manifested at St. Lucie, with too little consideration for his own safety, and too much disregard for the enemy's position. The troops were repulsed; but the Duke of Kent's high personal courage obtained him the applause of the soldiers, and a flattering rebuke from the Commander-in-Chief. The next theatre of his Royal Highness's public life was Gibraltar, the scene of his earliest military service. His Royal Highness was appointed Governor of that important garrison. A mass of abuses here waited his correcting hand. The establishment of wine-houses for the sale of liquors to the troops, had been encouraged from shameful motives in those who had the means of suppressing them, and to an extent not more subversive of the health, discipline, and morals of the garrison, than perilous to the safety of the place itself. The Royal Duke, attentive only to the welfare of the community of which he was the head, and scorning the vicious though vast emoluments which some of his predecessors had derived from the sale of licences for that illegal and ruinous traffic, resolved to cleanse the Augean stable, and to sweep away the abomination of many years. The

virtuous attempt was made; but it recoiled upon its author. Insubordination broke out on all sides; the reforming Governor was not supported by the local authorities; and he was sacrificed by those nearer home. The illustrious subject of this memoir, after receiving the grateful and unanimous acknowledgments of the civil population of Gibraltar, was recalled from a post in which his efforts for the public good were neither appreciated nor defended as they ought to have been; and his official services were since confined to the command of the 1st regiment of foot, or royals, which his Royal Highness held with the rank of Field Marshal, and with the nominal government of that fortress, from which his rigorous discharge of a solemn duty had been made the instrument of his expulsion. The later years of the Duke of Kent were distinguished by the exercise of talents and virtues in the highest degree worthy of a beneficent Prince, and of an enlightened English gentleman. There was no want nor misery which he did not endeavour to relieve to the extreme limits of his embarrassed fortune. There was no public charity to which his time, his presence, his eloquence, were not willingly devoted, nor to the ends of which they did not powerfully conduce. The traces of his intercourse with the inhabitants of this great metropolis on occasions of a salutary tendency to the morals and happiness of his poorer fellow-creatures, will never be effaced from the grateful hearts of those who saw and heard him.

Prince Leopold, Captain Conroy, and Generals Wetherall and Moore, were present to afford consolation and support to the Duchess, at the awful and trying event. The Royal Duke bore his affliction and illness with the greatest composure and resignation.

The complaint, which has thus so suddenly terminated the life of his Royal Highness, was an inflammation of the lungs, with cough, attributed, we understand, to a neglected cold, which he caught from sitting in wet boots after a walk in the environs of Sidmouth, with Captain Conroy. In the morning of Thursday last, his Royal Highness was reported to be in imminent danger; but towards the middle of the day he rallied again in consequence of a little refreshing sleep which he had been enabled to obtain. Towards evening, however, all the alarming symptoms returned again with increased vehemence, and continued so till towards Saturday morning, when a kindly remission of them took place. This, however, proved to be only that fatal relief which so commonly occurs before death ensues.

His Royal Highness was married on the 29th of May, 1818, at Coburg, (and remarried at Kew-palace, on the 11th July, same year,) to her Serene Highness Victoria Maria Louisa, youngest daughter of the

late reigning Duke of Saxe-Coburg, widow of his late Serene Highness the Prince of Leinengen, and sister of his Royal Highness the Prince of Saxe-Coburg, the chosen husband of our much lamented Princess Charlotte. The only issue of this marriage was a daughter, named Alexandrina Victoria, who was born at Kensington-palace on the 24th of May, 1819.

*Scotland.*—Paisley continues in a state of considerable agitation. There are so many out of employ, and so many evil spirits ever ready to take advantage of any tumult, that the smallest incident, or the least disturbance in the public streets, soon makes a formidable appearance, on account of the great number who assemble either to witness or abet the scene: there are so many disagreeable reports perpetually circulating, which, whether true or false, are equally calculated to arrest the attention: cases of individual suffering, of persons arrested, and of the most extensive preparations among the disaffected to attempt some political change, are among the most prominent of these stories. A notion appears to prevail among the most ardent Reformers, that something will soon transpire which will lead to the final attainment of their wishes. The most astonishing delusion has become triumphant on this head that ever existed. For some time past speculation and rumour would make each succeeding week to be the last week of existence in a tranquil state. Another week passes by, and the same deception is still fostered and propagated. Nothing, however, like an insurrection is likely to occur. Any attack on the part of a disorganized rabble would only be productive of instantaneous destruction to themselves. Every genuine philanthropist must feel for the sufferings of the poor: and it is undoubtedly the incumbent duty of all who possess the means to provide for their wants; but every attempt at lawless confusion must be put down, at whatever cost.

On the 17th inst. the Court of Justiciary met, in order to proceed to the trial of Andrew Marshall and his wife, of Glasgow, accused of vending blasphemous and seditious pamphlets. On their names being called, they failed to appear, and sentence of outlawry was passed in the common form against them. The Lord Advocate then prayed for a warrant to apprehend the above persons. His Lordship stated, that upwards of 16,000 copies of the pamphlets had been received by Marshall for circulation in Glasgow.

*Sedition.*—Several persons have been convicted at Chester for sedition. On Thursday the 13th Jan. they were brought up for judgment, when the court asked them what they had to say in mitigation of punishment. Sutton implored clemency, on account of his family; but the others were very resolute in declaring their satis-

faction at what they had done. The sentences were:—that Swindells, Burtenshaw, Stubbs, and Richards, for sedition and conspiracy, be imprisoned for two years; that they find securities at the expiration of that period, themselves in 50*l.* and two sureties in 25*l.* each, to keep the peace for one year.—That Joseph Swann, for the same offence, be imprisoned two years in Chester Castle, and find the like sureties,—that Joseph Swann, for publishing a blasphemous libel, be imprisoned for two years, finding the like sureties,—and that he be also further imprisoned for six months, for publishing a seditious libel; making the total period of Swann's imprisonment four years and a half!—When the sentence was passed, Swann, with a vast deal of *sang froid*, held up a white hat bound with crape, and exclaimed, "Han ye done?—is that all?—why I thowt ye'd got a bit of hemp for me, and hung me!"

*Manchester, Dec. 25.*—On Thursday last the Magistrates issued a warrant for the arrest of certain individuals, delegates, from neighbouring towns, who had assembled at the Sir Sidney Smith public-house, in Port-street, Manchester. The whole of these persons were brought before the Magistrates, and underwent a private examination. Upon the person of one Naaman Carter were found a quantity of bullets and a piece of flint.—*Manchester paper.*

*Warwick, Jan. 11.*—True bills have been found by the Grand Jury, this day, at the Sessions, against George Ragg, for selling a blasphemous and seditious libel, entitled "No. 9, Vol. I. of the Republican;" Thos. Wells, for using seditious language, by cursing the King, &c.;—Brandis, author of a seditious publication, entitled "Letter to the Reformers;" W. Osborn, for selling a libellous work, tending to bring the church into ridicule, entitled "No. 12, Black Book;" George Ragg, for a similar offence; C. Whitworth, Chairman of the Union Society, for an inflammatory placard, addressed to all the Reformers; George Edmonds, the noted orator, for a libel upon the Magistrates. The above are all residents in Birmingham.

At a meeting held at Birmingham, to consider the distressed state of manufactures and commerce, resolutions were passed, attributing it to the poor laws and taxation. Charles Lloyd, Esq. (the father of the elegant poet of that name) delivered a speech "which breathed," says the account, "the purest benevolence; and his venerable appearance gave an uncommon interest to the proceedings."

*Severity of the Weather.*—The severity of the weather has been so great as to render communication with the shipping at Deptford, Woolwich, and the other parts of the river, impossible. At several places

provisions have with the utmost difficulty been dragged on board the ships; and at Deptford booths have been put up on the ice, and a sort of fair commenced. At Woolwich, on Wednesday, the ice in several places was nearly five feet in thickness. Above bridge the effects were equally severe, and off Lambeth there was a piece of ice more than 12 feet in thickness.

Jan. 23.—The Mails were later in arriving yesterday morning than for a great many years past. The Leeds, Manchester, and Chester Mails, which are in general the earliest arrivals, did not reach town till past twelve o'clock: and, at one, some of the Northern Mails were still due. The detention has been in some parts occasioned by the depth of the snow, but more particularly in others by the flooded state of the roads.

Some benevolent persons in the city have done a good practical work of charity, and certainly a most necessary one, by setting on foot a subscription, to appropriate a large place of shelter to the destitute poor during the present bitter winter. Objections were made, it seems, in some quarter, to the mode of charity; but as the Bishop of Chester said, fault of some kind might be found with every species of charity. If the objectors know of any better mode, let them set about putting it into effect; but in the mean time what can be done, ought to be done. People may find fault, in order to do nothing, as well as to do better.—At the same time, it is impossible to help shuddering, to one's very core, to think of the cold-hearted politics that have brought thousands of the descendants of Englishmen into this dreadful state,—into want of absolute shelter from the elements and the freezing air. Many an old man, half-maddened into another Lear, may now well cry out to Pomp,

Expose thyself to feel what wretches feel,  
That thou may'st shake the superflux to  
them,

And shew the heavens more just.

*Examiner.*

A meeting of the inhabitants of Canterbury and its vicinity, convened by the Mayor, was held at the Guildhall on Wednesday, when a subscription was entered into for the relief of the distressed poor during the present inclemency of the weather.

At Bath, Oxford, and indeed in almost every other city and town in England, subscriptions have been opened for the like laudable and benevolent purpose.

*Deaths through cold and want of food.*  
—On the 15th Jan., an inquisition was taken at the Sun, Old Round-court, Strand, before Mr. Higgs, the coroner, on the bodies of John Musters and Mary his wife, who were both found dead on Wednesday morning. James M'Adam, a printer,

lodged in the next room to them, and he knew them to be in great distress. A few days ago the man came to borrow 6d., and then said they had nothing to eat, and no fire. On Monday night he came again and paid the 6d., with another 6d. which had been previously owing. Their moans and groans were shocking to hear. The constable and the beadle, who opened the door, were of opinion they perished in consequence of the inclemency of the night; they had no bed nor firing. The Jury thought, as there were bread and butter in the room, they were not starved to death; but not having clothing, bed, nor fire, during the inclement season, they perished.—Verdict to that effect.

An inquisition was taken on Jan. 22 before T. Stirling, Esq., Coroner for the county of Middlesex, at St. Giles's workhouse, on the body of a poor unfortunate wretch, named Hatchett, whose death was produced by the want of the common necessities of life, during the late inclement season.—The Jury took a view of the body; a more loathsome object cannot be described—a heap of bones, covered with rags and filth.

The Old Bailey Sessions ended the 21st. Eighteen prisoners received sentence of death. Among those ordered for transportation for 14 years were A. Villemont and J. Carroll, for trafficking in slaves.

*The New Bank Notes.*—The following is an outline of the plan finally to be determined upon with respect to these notes:—A number of squares will appear in checker-work upon the note, filled with hair-lines in elliptic curves of various degrees of eccentricity, the squares to be alternately of red and black lines: the perfect mathematical coincidence of the extremities of the lines of different colours on the sides of the squares will be effected by the arrangement of machinery of singular fidelity. But even with the use of this machinery, a person who has not the key to the proper disposition of its parts, would make millions of experiments to no purpose. Other obstacles to imitation will be also presented in the structure of the note; but this is the one principally relied upon. It is plain that any failure in the imitation will be manifest to the observation of the most careless; and the most skilful merchants who have seen the operation, declare the note cannot be imitated. The machine works with three cylinders, and the impression is made by small convex cylindrical plates.

Mr. Cobbett has put forth a demand upon the people to raise him five thousand pounds, by two-penny subscriptions; adding, that he will tell nobody, subscribers not excepted, what the sum is for. "This, we think, is going a little too far," says *The Examiner*; but we do not think so—*for him!*

## WORKS PREPARING FOR PUBLICATION.

Mr. Leigh Hunt, author of "*Rimini*," &c. is about to publish a Translation of Tasso's *Aminta*, with an Essay on the pastoral Poetry of Italy.

Elements of the History of Civil Government, being a View of the Rise and Progress of the various Political Institutions that have subsisted throughout the world, and an Account of the present State and distinguishing Features of the Governments now in Existence, by James Tyson, Esq. will speedily be put to the press.

Mr. O'Meara, late Surgeon to Napoleon, is rapidly advancing in his arrangement of a second MS. from St. Helena.

Mr. Cottle is about to publish an Expostulatory Epistle to Lord Byron.

The Sketch Book, by Geoffrey Crayon, Gent. the first English edition, with alterations and additions by the author, will appear early in the month of February.

An Account of a Voyage to Southern Africa, in the Congress Frigate, performed by order of the American Government, written by Hall Brackenridge, Esq. Secretary to the Mission, is in considerable forwardness.

Mr. Britton has just finished Part I. forming a half volume, or Vol. V. of his "*Architectural Antiquities of Great Britain*." This portion consists of forty-one Engravings, representing a variety of examples of the circular style of Ecclesiastical Architecture in England; including some Specimens of Roman, Saxon, and Norman: these are displayed in plans, elevations, sections, and views, and are calculated to exhibit the progressive changes, or styles, in the architecture of this country. The work is intended to be completed in eighty plates, with appropriate letter-press, which will comprise an historical, descriptive, and critical essay on the rise, progress, and characteristics of the ecclesiastical edifices and styles of architecture in England. The work is to be completed by the end of the year.

The same author has also completed his "*History and Antiquities of the Metropolitan Church of York*, illustrated with thirty-four Engravings of Views, Elevations, Plans, and Details of the Architecture of that Edifice; with Biographical Anecdotes of the Archbishops." The plates are mostly engraved by J. and H. Lekeux, from drawings by F. Mackenzie and E. Blore. Mr. Britton has also produced two out of three numbers of his "*History and Illustrations of Lichfield Cathedral*."

Doctor John Walker, of Walbrook, has issued a Prospectus amongst his private circle of friends, of an intended new periodical work, to be entitled "*The True Monthly Magazine*."

James Mitchell, M. A. author of "*Ele-*

ments of Natural Philosophy, illustrated by Experiments which may be performed without regular Apparatus," "*A Tour through Belgium*," &c. &c. will shortly put to press an Elementary Work on Astronomy.

Mr. Thelwall is writing the History of the Six Acts, consisting of a review of the transactions of the first five weeks of a session of parliament, commencing in November 22, 1819.

The Rev. T. P. Hughes is preparing for publication, Travels in various Countries bordering on the Mediterranean, particularly in Albania, with an Account of the Life and Wars of Ali Pacha.

A History of the Revolution in St. Domingo, translated from the French of General Lacroix, with notes and illustrations, may shortly be expected.

Taxidermy, or a complete Treatise on the Art of preserving every Object of Natural History for Museums, with lists of those that are rarest, or most wanted in European collections, will appear in the course of the month, in one volume octavo.

The Tribute of a Friend to the Memory of Walter Darby, Esq. late of St. John's College, Cambridge. By Thomas Bayly, of St. Mary's Hall, Oxford; is nearly ready for publication.

An Enquiry into certain Errors respecting Insanity, by Dr. Burrows, is in the press, and will appear early in the present month.

The Rev. T. D. Fosbroke is printing, in quarto, Abstracts, &c. of Smythe's Lives of the Berkeleys; to which is prefixed, a History of the Town and Castle of Berkeley.

An Enquiry, chiefly on Principles of Religion, into the Nature and Discipline of Human Motives. By the Rev. John Penrose, Jun.—The object of this work is to fill up a manifest desideratum in moral and theological science, by showing systematically the connexion between the principles of religion and those of virtue.

The Iliad of Homer translated into English prose, as literally as the different idioms of the Greek and English Languages will allow; with Explanatory Notes. By a Graduate of the University of Oxford. In 2 vols. 8vo.

Proposals are circulated for publishing, by subscription, Specimens of the Architectural Antiquities of Normandy, in a series of one hundred Etchings, representing exterior and interior views, elevations, and details of the most celebrated and most curious remains of antiquity in that country. By J. S. Cotman, Esq. author of Architectural Antiquities of Norfolk, &c.

A periodical work, to be published quarterly, is announced under the title of the Retrospective Review, consisting of criti-

cisms upon, analyses of, and extracts from, curious, useful, and valuable books in all languages, which have been published from the revival of literature to the commencement of the present century.

The Rev. C. Simeon has in forwardness, in eleven octavo volumes, *Horæ Homilæricæ*, or Discourses, in the form of Skeletons, upon the whole Scriptures, containing above twelve hundred, distinct from those in the five volumes already published.

A small volume of Poems, entitled "Sacred Lyrics," by James Edmonstone, may shortly be expected.

An Historical Map of Palestine, or the Holy Land: exhibiting a delineation of the peculiar geographical features of the country, and those names of places which accord with the Scripture narrative; interspersed with 90 vignettes, illustrative of the most important circumstances recorded in the Old and New Testament. The subjects are introduced in their geographical situations, as nearly as can be ascertained from the best sources of information. The size of the Map is 40 inches by 27½. Engraved by Mr. Hall, from a drawing by Mr. Asheton.

A collection of Anecdotes, arranged under separate heads, to be entitled "Percy Anecdotes," is in the press. The first four parts will be published together, and

will consist of Anecdotes of Humanity, with a portrait of W. Wilberforce, Esq. M. P.—The second on Eloquence, with a portrait of Lord Erskine.—The third on Enterprize, with a portrait of the lamented Mungo Park.—The fourth on Youth, with a portrait of the Son of Sir G. Dallas. The parts next to be published are those on Heroism, Genius, Science, Generosity, Liberty, &c.

The Mabinogion.—The admirers of Welsh literature will hear with pleasure that Mr. W. O. Pughe is translating, with a view to publication, these ancient tales, which form so original and curious a feature in the interesting remains of the Cymry.

Mr. Farr is about to publish Remarks on the Treatment and Cure of Scrophula, detailing a new method which he has practised for the eradication of that disease.

Mr. Doncaster is preparing a work for the press, illustrative of his new system of hydroagriculture and mechanical spade cultivation; together with the proposition and selection of his newly discovered agricultural paradox, and also on the propriety of parcelling out the glebe lands of the country into convenient sized poultry farms, for the employment of the poor thereon, as well as for the advantage of small capitalists.

#### WORKS LATELY PUBLISHED.

##### *Arts and Sciences.*

A Treatise on Adulterations of Food and Culinary Poisons; by F. Accum. 12mo. 9s.

An Elementary Treatise on Mechanics; by W. Wheewell, M.A. 8vo. 15s.

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### ECCLESIASTICAL PREFERMENTS.

Rev. Mr. Clarke, Fellow of Winchester College, Oxford, to the rectory and vicarage of Budston. Rev. J. Harris of Langartock, to the rectory of Llanthetty, county of Brecon. Rev. T. G. Tyndall, M.A. of Trinity College, Oxford, to the rectory of Halton. Rev. Jeremiah Burroughes, to the rectory of Burlingham, St. Andrew, with Burlingham St. Edmund annexed. Rev. Henry Butt, B.A. to the vicarage of Lakenheath, Suffolk. Rev. Jeremiah Davies, B.A. of Clare Hall, Cambridge, to the living of Evington. Rev. W. F. Mansel, B.A. of Trinity College, Cambridge, to the vicarage of

Ashelworth. Rev. T. B. Cole, rector of Warburton, Sussex, to be Master of the Grammar School, Maidstone. Rev. C. M. Allfree, to be a Minor Canon of Rochester Cathedral. Rev. T. Fisher to the rectory of Roche, Cornwall. Rev. John Thompson, M.A., to the rectory of Lullingstone, Kent. Rev. Thomas Gurnier, rector of Bishop's Stoke, to the rectory of Brightwell. The Hon. and Rev. Augustus Legge, Chancellor of the Diocese of Winchester, to the rectory of North Waltham. Rev. Thomas Dade, M.A. of Calus, to the rectory of Bincombe, with Broadway, Dorsetshire.

### BANKRUPTS IN ENGLAND.

[T distinguishes London Commissions, C those of the country.]

Gazette—January 1, 1820.

Bewley, Benj., Manchester, slater. Atts. Milne and Parry, Temple, London. C.  
Bone, Jas., Truro, linen draper. Atts. Cardale and Young, Gray's-inn, London. C.  
Buplin, Thos., Bridgewater, hop-merchant. Att. J. Pain, 10, New-inn, London. C.  
Cook, John, Whitechapel-road, Middlesex, grocer. Att. Chas. Wright, Fenchurch-street. T.  
Darby, C. Henry, Fenchurch-street, London, tailor. Atts. Slade and Jones, 1, John-street, Bedford-row. T.  
Dawson, Thos., Manchester, victualler. Atts. Hurd and Johnson, Temple, London. C.  
Friend Thos., Edw. Hill Friend, W. Irvine Friend, Sunderland. Att. Blakiston, Symond's-inn, London. C.  
Glover, John, late of Liverpool, shoe-maker. Atts. Clarke, Richards, and Medcalf, 109, Chancery-lane, London. C.  
Lant, Danl., late of Smithfield, London, merchant. Att. H. Williams, Blackman-street, Southwark. T.  
Malcom, Robt., Ashbourne, tea-dealer. Att. E. Chester, 3, Staple-inn. T.  
Parker, Robt., Manchester, innkeeper. Atts. Milne and Parry, Temple, London. C.  
Phillips, Michael, late of Great Prescott-street, Goodman's-fields, Middlesex, merchant. Att. Poole, Adam's-court, Old Broad-street, London. T.  
Pinnington, Dav., Cheltenham, livery-stable keeper. Att. Williams, Red Lion-square, London. C.  
Reed, Christ., Plymouth, merchant. Att. Benj. Follet, Paper-Buildings, London. C.  
Townsend, Wm., Sheffield, builder. Att. R. Capes, 9, Holborn-court, Gray's-inn, London. C.  
Whitfield, Wm. Proctor, Commercial-road, Middlesex, wine-merchant. Atts. Jacob and Bentley, Basinghall-street. T.  
Wood, John, Walsall, factor. Atts. Turner and Holmes, 5, Bloomsbury-square, London. C.

Gazette—January 4.

Baker, Thos., late of the city of York, linen-draper. Att. Ferdinando Jeyes, 69, Chancery-lane, London. C.  
Clough, Jer., Bramley. Atts. Tottie, Richardson and Gaunt, 33, Poultry, London. C.

VOL. I.

Ellison, Robt., Liverpool, chymist and druggist. Att. Norris, 32, John-street, Bedford-row, London. C.  
Feise, Godfrey, Lawrence Pountney-hill, London, merchant. Atts. Tomlinsons, Thomson and Baker, Copthall-court, Throgmorton-street, London. T.  
Forster, Emerson, and Ralph Wylam, Newcastle-upon-Tyne, merchants. Att. Hartley, New Bridge-street, London. C.  
Foster, John, late of Liverpool, money-scrivener. Atts. Lowndes and Lowndes, Red Lion-square, London. C.  
Horton, Chas., Birmingham, wire-worker. Atts. Clarke, Richards and Medcalf, Chancery-lane, London. C.  
Jones, John, Worcester, linen-draper. Att. John Palmer, Gray's-inn square, Holborn, London. C.  
Payne, Saml., Nottingham, money-scrivener. Atts. Long and Austen, Gray's-inn, London. C.  
Preston, Jas., now or late of Wooddale, cloth manufacturer and dyer. Att. Dickison, 13, Finch-lane, Cornhill, London. C.  
Robinson, Wm., and Thos. Robinson, Chelsea, Middlesex, linen-draper. Atts. Willis, Clarke and Watson, Warnford-court, Throgmorton-street, London. T.  
Shoobridge, Wm., Marden, farmer. Att. Carter, Lord Mayor's Court-office. T.  
Sinclair, Jas., Brighthelmston, bookbinder. Atts. Gregson and Fonnereau, Angel-court, Throgmorton-street, London. C.  
Swayne, John, Bristol, dealer and chapman. Atts. Hurd and Johnson, Temple, London. C.

Gazette—Jan. 8.

Aves, Wm., Watton, grocer. Atts. Smith and Lawford, Draper's-hall, Throgmorton-street, London. T.  
Bartlett, Thos. Eagles, Banbury, mercer and draper. Atts. Meyrick and Broderip, Red Lion-square, London. C.  
Belcher, Isaac Boosey, Hatfield Broad Oak, linen-draper. Att. Comerford, Copthall-court, Throgmorton street, London. T.  
Board, Jos., late of Highbridge, shopkeeper. Att. J. Pearson, Pump-court, Temple, London. C.  
Bradfield, William, North Ehnham, baker. Atts. Dixon and Son, Gray's-inn-square, London. C.  
Butler, John Price, Bilston, baker and grocer. Att. W.C. Smith, 9, Aldermanbury Postern, London. C.

2 H

Gerrard, Dorothy, Old Cavendish-street, Mary-le-Bone, Middlesex, milliner. Att. Nowell, 30, Essex-street, Strand, London. T.

Hurry, Edw., Freeman's-court, Cornhill, London, merchant. Atts. Swain, Stevens, Maples, Pearse, and Hunt, Frederick's-place, Old Jewry, London. T.

Lace, Stanley, Liverpool, brazier. Att. Wheeler, 28, Castle-street, London. C.

Livesey, John, Bolton, paper-maker. Att. M. Meddowcroft, Gray's-inn, London. C.

Maddock, Edw. Rd. Quinn, and J. Uniacke, Liverpool, merchants. Atts. Lowe and Power, Southampton-buildings, Chancery-lane, London. C.

Milligan, Alex., late of Wolverhampton, tea-dealer. Att. Edw. Chester, 3, Staple-inn, Holborn, London. T.

Neestrip, Thos., Cateaton-street, London, warehouseman. Atts. Walker and Rankin, Old Jewry, London. T.

Payne, Geo., Newgate-street, London, hatter. Att. Oldham, Earl-street, Blackfriars, London. T.

Peck John, Kent, carpenter. Att. Sandom, Slade's-place, Deptford. T.

Powles, John Diston, Freeman's-court, Cornhill, London, merchant. Atts. Swain, Stevens, Maples, Pearse, and Hunt, Frederick's-place, Old Jewry, London. T.

Sellers, Henry, late of Burnley, manufacturer. Atts. Hurd and Johnson, Temple, London. C.

Simpson, Christ., Stretford, nurseryman. Atts. Hurd and Johnson, Temple, London. C.

Taylor, Jas., late of Hedon, mariner. Att. Hindman, Basinghall-street, London. T.

Wynn, Wm., late of Dean-street, Soho, Middlesex, watch and clock maker. Atts. Palmer and France, Bedford-row. T.

*Gazette—Jan. 11.*

Addis, Thos., Powick, plumber and glazier. Atts. Cardale, Buxton, and Parby, Gray's-inn, London. C.

Appleton, Robt. Johnson, Sculcoates, plumber and glazier. Att. Leonard Hicks, 5, Gray's-inn-square, London. C.

Browne, Wm., Edmund, Stock Exchange, London, stock-broker. Att. Younger, John-street, Minories. T.

Coope, John, Chesterfield, tallow-chandler. Atts. Hall, Ross, and Brownley, New Boswell-court, Carey-street, London. C.

Dick, Andw., and John Morrison, St. Catherine-square, East Smithfield, Middlesex, ale and porter merchants. Att. Hutchinson, Crown-court, Threadneedle-street, London. T.

Dodd, Simon, Newcastle-upon-Tyne, merchant. Atts. Bell and Brodrick, Bow-church-yard, London. C.

Forster, Mattw., of Newcastle-upon-Tyne, tea-dealer. Att. Hartley, New Bridge-street, London. C.

Moore, Wm., Houghton, butter and bacon merchant. Att. Birkett, Cloak-lane, London. C.

Ray, Jas., and Jas. Reynolds Ray, Clare, bankers. Att. N. Stevens, 9, Gray's-inn-square, London. C.

Wheeler, Hen., sen. Blandford-Forum, butcher. Atts. Wilson and Chisholme, 47, Lincoln's-inn-Fields, London. C.

*Gazette—January 15.*

Bracewell, Jas., Bramley, inn-keeper. Att. Mr. Richd. Battye, Chancery-lane, London. C.

Chapman, Wm., Bishopsgate-street-Without, Middlesex, haberdasher. Att. Mr. Farren, Threadneedle-street, London. T.

Farrer, Robt., Bread-street, Cheapside, London, warehouseman. Atts. Hard and Johnson, King's-Bench-Walk, Temple, London. T.

Fearnall, Joshua, now or late of White Cottage, New-Cross, Deptford, merchant. Atts. Woodward and Co. Nicholas-lane, Lombard-street. T.

Jacobs, Lewis, Nassau-street, Middlesex Hospital, Middlesex, glass-dealer. Att. Norton, 32, New Union-street, Little Moorfields. T.

Morgan, Edw., Knighton, woolstapler. Att. Pugh, 33, Bernard-street, Russell-square, London. C.

Morris, Christ., Cateaton-street, London, warehouseman. Att. Partington, Cursitor-street, Chancery-lane. T.

Morris, Thos., Bristol, linen-draper. Att. J. Pearson, Pump-court, Temple, London. C.

Phillips, Richd., Ashburnham, Sussex, farmer. Att. Edw. Ellis, Cloisters, Temple. T.

Read, Christ. Ridout, Barbican-court, London, merchant. Atts. Sweet and Stokes, 6, Basinghall-street. T.

Scott, John, Fore-street, London, corn-dealer. Att. C. Wilss, 75, Hatton-garden, London. T.

Smith, Thos. Dan. St. George, Rotherhithe, cork-manufacturer. Att. G. Edmunds, Exchequer-Office of Pleas, Lincoln's-inn. T.

Thompson, Hen., and Thos. Moses, Paradise Row, Rotherhithe, wine-merchant. Att. Hutchinson, Crown-court, Threadneedle-street, London. T.

Trustrum, Josiah, late of the Grove, Great Guildford-street, carpenter. Att. J. Harmer, 29, Hatton-garden. T.

Twiddy, Geo., 28, Bread-street-hill, London, oil and colourman. Att. D. Jones, Sise-lane, Queen-street, London. T.

*Gazette—January 18.*

Bass, Mich., Ashborne, malster. Atts. Sweet, Stokes, and Carr, Basinghall-street, London. C.

Crump, Thos., and Thos. Hill, jun. late of Kidderminster, carpet manufacturers. Att. E. Bizz, 29, Southampton-buildings, Chancery-lane, London. C.

Delamare, P. Hayward, Romford, Essex, auctioneer. Atts. Clare and Dickinson, Frederick's place, Old Jewry, London. T.

Harrop, John (otherwise called John Shadforth Harrop), late of Gateshead, grocer. Att. Hartley, New Bridge-street, London. C.

Johnson, Wm., Birmingham, tarpauling-maker. W. C. Smith, 9, Aldermanbury-postern, London. C.

Nightingale, Jos., Howden, Yorkshire, corn-factor. Att. Lowndes and Lowndes, Red-Lion-square, London. C.

Read, Christ. Ridout, Brabant-court, London, merchant and broker. Atts. Sweet, Stokes, and Carr, 6, Basinghall-street. T.

Watters, Sam., East-lane, Bermondsey, anchor-smith and victualler. Att. Hutchison, Crown-court, Threadneedle-street, London. T.

Whitley, John, Bingley, worsted-spinner. Att. Few, Ashmore, and Hamilton, 2, Henrietta-street, Covent-garden, London. C.

Worrall, Wm., Liverpool, merchant. Atts. Blackstock and Bunce, King's-Bench-walk, Temple, London. C.

## SCOTCH SEQUESTRATIONS.

*Gazette—Jan. 1, to Jan. 18.*

Bell, W., manufacturer, Anderston, Edinburgh.

Martinsons and Somerville, distillers, Gillybanks, Perthshire.

Robertson, J., flax-dresser, Dysart, Edinburgh.

Sym and Langmuir, corn-merchants, Glasgow.

Young, T. wood-merchant, Irvine.

Byers, Richd. and Co., spirit-dealers, Glasgow.

Jamieson, A., merchant, Turriff, Edinburgh.

Laird, A., cooper, Leith.

White and Downie, merchants, Glasgow.

Thomson, John, Edinburgh.

Harkness, T., Esq. of Baltimore, timber-merchant, Garrachovan, Argyshire.

Woodmass H., and A. Lookup, tanners, Dumfries, Edinburgh.

## BIRTHS.

Jan. 1. At Clay Hall, Norfolk, the lady of Theophilis Buckworth, Esq. a daughter.

At Hornsey, Mrs. Martin, a daughter.

2. Mrs. Clarke of Lincoln's-inn-fields, a son.

At Mortlake, Mrs. R. H. Knight, a daughter.

At Champion-lodge, Surry, the lady of Starling Benson, Esq. a daughter.

3. In George-street, Hanover-square, the lady of Sir John S. Copley, Solicitor-general, a daughter.

4. At Eton-lodge, Liverpool, the lady of J. Walker, Esq. a daughter.

5. At Bill-hill, the lady of Philip Francis, Esq. a daughter.

The lady of Lees Shaw, Esq. of Bedford-square, a son.

6. At Little Waltham-lodge, the lady of Joseph Saville, Esq. a daughter.

The lady of Captain Henry Wayland Powell, Grenadier-guards, a son.

7. At Heath-lodge, Hampstead, the lady of Charles King, Esq. a son.

8. At Kneesworth-house, Cambridgeshire, the lady of James Pym, Esq. a son.

9. On China Terrace, the lady of George Dyson, Esq. a daughter.

10. In Manchester-square, the lady of Governor Jones, a son.

12. At Brighton, the Hon. Mrs. Sotheby, a son.

At Rosefield, the lady of Captain Nolan, a son.

13. The lady of J. Smith Barry, Esq. a son.

14. At Chiswick, Mrs. Harley Brown, twins.

16. In Tavistock-square, Mrs. Cowburn, a son.

17. At Limehouse, the lady of the Rev. Dr. Ridge, a son.

18. Mrs. Temple Frere, a son.

At Binfield-house, Bucks, the lady of T. Forrest, Esq. a daughter.

20. In Park-place, the Hon. Mrs. Lane, a daughter.

At Litchfield, Mrs. General Johnson, a son.

21. In Seymour-place, the lady of Lieutenant-colonel Hickson, a son.

### MARRIAGES.

Jan. 1. At Newbury, James Cotter, Esq. to Helena, third daughter of the late J. Lombard, Esq.

At Plymouth, Captain Henry Masters, R. N. to Susan, eldest daughter of the Rev. Dr. Small, of Stoke.

The Hon. Thomas Lee, to Lady Mary Foxall, relict of Sir John Foxall.

2. At the seat of the Earl of Glasgow, Alexander Fraser, Esq. of Kepperburn, to Lady Augusta Boyle, youngest daughter of the Earl of Glasgow.

3. The Rev. David Williams, to Mary Anne, eldest daughter of the Rev. W. Bartlett of Newark.

At Charlton Adam, the Rev. W. Sharp, M. A. to Lucy Anne, eldest daughter of the late Rev. Adam Gapper, M. A.

4. C. R. Morgan, Esq. of Charlotte-street, to Ann Jane, second daughter of James Ogle, Esq. of Southampton-street.

Thomas D'Oyley, Esq. Serjeant-at-law, to Eliza, third daughter of the Rev. N. Simons.

R. Bell, Esq. Barrister-at-law, of Farley-hall, to Louisa, daughter of the late Philip Dauncey, Esq.

5. R. Gosling, Esq. to Maria Elizabeth, eldest daughter of Henry Grey, Esq. Barrister-at-law.

6. The Right Hon. Lord Viscount Kingsland, to Julia, daughter of John Wilks, Esq. of Lambeth.

The Rev. Henry Fardell, Prebendary of Ely, to Eliza Sparke, eldest daughter of the Lord Bishop of Ely.

7. B. Hutchinson, Esq. to Catharine, eldest daughter of F. P. Trapaud, Esq. of Potters-bar.

The Rev. Charles Arthur Sage, to Caroline, sixth daughter of the late James Quinter, Esq. of Hadley.

8. Lieutenant-colonel Marsack, of the Grenadier-guards, to Jane, widow of Richard Latenard, Esq. of Ealing.

Mr. Noble to Miss Luppino of Covent-Garden Theatre.

9. The Rev. William Carter, to Miss Hill, of Lincoln.

The Rev. J. Coles, of Thornbury, to Sarah, only daughter of Mr. Young, Bath.

10. C. T. Holcombe, Esq. of Hatcham Manor-house, to Margaret, eldest daughter of J. P. Cummings, Esq. of Milton.

11. The Rev. C. Willis, to Emily, second daughter of the Rev. J. S. Vigor.

12. At Oadby, Daniel Gosset, Esq. to Mary Anne, second daughter of the late John Jackson, Esq.

13. At Exeter, David Hobbs, Esq. to the Hon. Lady Peake.

At Cheshunt, Herts, James Cole, Royal Marines, Esq. to Mrs. Needham, widow of Edward Needham, Esq. of Theobalds.

18. The Rev. T. S. Hodges, to Julia, third daughter of the late W. Boeteler, Esq.

20. At Fulham, W. Wilberforce, Jun. Esq. to Mary, second daughter of the Rev. William Owen, Rector of Paddlesham.

Sir James Stuart, of Allambank, Bart. to Eliza C. Woodcock, daughter of the late E. Woodcock, Esq.

21. At Coventry, the Hon. and Rev. W. Eden, to Ann Maria Lady Gray de Ruthyn.

J. Yonge, Esq. of Cardwood, to Margaret Crawley, daughter of the late Sir T. Crawley, Boovey, Bart.

22. Lieutenant Ayles, R. N. to Miss Venables, Vigo-lane.

### DEATHS.

Jan. 1. In Bentinck-street, Manchester-square, John Hooper, Esq. aged 76.

In the New Kent Road, Christian Kidd, wife of Captain Kidd.

At Landaff, Sarah, wife of Luke Ashburner, Esq. 60.

2. The Rev. Dr. Bingham, Vicar of Great Goddestone, 76.

At Erriat, Miss Foulkes, only daughter of Lieutenant-colonel Foulkes.

3. In Cornhill, Mr. William Rivers.

John Wornham Penfold, Esq. of Hampton-wick.

4. Mrs. Russell, of Lant-street, Southwark.

In Guilford-street, W. Saville, Esq. 75.

In Great Ormond-street, G. Shepheard, Esq. 73.

At Norwood, Elton Hammond, Esq. 36.

5. At Beverley, Mrs. Sinclair, widow of the late Rev. G. Sinclair, A. M. 78.

6. The Abbe Senechal, one of the Teachers of the French language at the University of Oxford.

7. At the Forest Lodge, Essex, Mrs. Bosanquet, relict of the late Samuel Bosanquet, Esq. 75.

At Twickenham, John Taylor, Esq. M. P. of New Broad-street, 59.

8. In Cecil-street Strand, W. Winchester, Esq. 72.

9. Captain Urmeton, R. N.

At Kidderminster, Mr. Frost, one of the Magistrates of that Borough.

In Margaret-street, Cavendish-square, Dennis Jacob, Esq. 83.

On Highgate-hill, C. Walker, Esq. 75.

10. At Little Syon, the Right Hon. Lady Eliz. Percy.

11. In Great Surry-street, Mrs. Aderley, wife of Thomas Aderley, Esq. Proctor of Doctors' Commons.

In Charlotte-street, Fitzroy-square, N. Halford, Esq. 56.

The Hon. Mrs. Harley, relict of the late Bishop of Hereford, and mother of the Earl of Oxford.

12. Mrs. Linley, relict of the late T. Linley, Esq. Drury Lane Theatre.

The Rev. Henry Dixey, of Cambridge, 57.

At Chichester, Captain Edward Laing, R. N. 49.

13. At Catton, R. Hervey, Esq. one of his Majesty's justices of peace for Norwich.

At Bath, Mrs. Holroyd, only surviving sister of the Earl of Sheffield, 81.

14. At Bath, the Hon. and Rev. Charles Lindsay, 58.

In Grosvenor-square, Joseph Cobb, Esq. 50.

15. Mrs. Hoare, of Beckenham, Kent.

Mary, Countess Dowager of Rothes, relict of the late Bennett Langton, Esq. 77.

16. At Maida-hill, Henrietta, widow of the late Rear Admiral Brenton, 77.

17. In New Cavendish-street, Lieutenant-general James Campbell, 76.

18. In Cavendish-square, the Hon. Mrs. Crewe.

At Bath, the Hon. General Lane, 74.

19. At Reading Henry Bragg, Esq. 43.

At Gloucester, George Dyson, Esq.

20. In Finsbury-square, Charles Mann, Esq. 70.

At Bath, Mrs. More, relict of General Sir George More.

22. At Sydmouth, EDWARD, DUKE OF KENT, and STRATHERN, fourth Son of our beloved Monarch. His Royal Highness was born the 2d of November, 1767; and married, on the 29th of May, to Victoria Maria Louisa, daughter of the late reigning Duke of Saxe Cobourg, and sister of Prince Leopold, by whom he has left issue, a daughter, named Alexandrina Victoria, born May 24, 1819.

23. At Hurst, Berkshire, James Deal, Esq. of Boston.

In Cavendish-square, Lieut.-general Clarke, 76.

In Portland-place, Charles Le Mair, Esq.

24. In Edinburgh, Mrs. Healy, relict of the Rev. Edward Healy.

At Plymouth, Miss Jones, youngest daughter of General Jones, 22.

## MARKETS.

## COURSE OF EXCHANGE.

From Dec. 30 to Jan. 25.

|                             |       |       |
|-----------------------------|-------|-------|
| Amsterdam ef.               | 11-18 | 11-19 |
| Ditto at sight              | 11-15 | 11-16 |
| Rotterdam, 2 U              | 11-19 | 12-0  |
| Antwerp                     | 12-0  | 12-1  |
| Hamburgh, 2½ U              | 36-0  | 36-1  |
| Altona, 2½ U                | 36-1  | 36-2  |
| Paris, 3 days sight         | 25-0  |       |
| Ditto 2 U                   | 25-30 |       |
| Bordeaux                    | 25-30 |       |
| Frankfort on the Main Ex. M | 151   |       |
| Vienna, ef. 2 m. flo. 2 M   | 10-2  |       |
| Trieste                     | 10-4  |       |
| Madrid, effective           | 35-0½ | 34-0¾ |
| Cadiz, effective            | 35-0½ | 34-0¾ |
| Bilboa                      | 35-0  | 34-0¾ |
| Barcelona                   | 34-0½ | 34-0  |
| Seville                     | 35-0  | 34-0½ |
| Gibraltar                   | 30-0  |       |
| Leghorn                     | 47-0½ |       |
| Genoa                       | 44-0½ |       |
| Venice, Ital. Liv.          | 27-30 |       |
| Malta                       | 46-0  |       |
| Naples                      | 38-0½ | 38-0½ |
| Palermo, per. oz.           | 116   |       |
| Lisbon                      | 52-0  |       |
| Oporto                      | 52-0  |       |
| Rio Janeiro                 | 57-0½ | 56-0  |
| Bahia                       | 58-0½ | 57-0  |
| Dublin                      | 11-0½ |       |
| Cork                        | 11-0½ |       |

## PRICES OF BULLION.

At per Ounce.

|                         | £. | s. | d.  | £. | s. | d. |
|-------------------------|----|----|-----|----|----|----|
| Portugal gold, in coin  | 3  | 17 | 10½ | 0  | 0  | 0  |
| Foreign gold, in bars   | 3  | 17 | 10½ | 0  | 0  | 0  |
| New doubloons           | 3  | 15 | 6   | 0  | 0  | 0  |
| New dollars             | 0  | 5  | 0   | 0  | 5  | 0  |
| Silver, in bars, stand. | 0  | 5  | 2   | 0  | 0  | 0  |

The above Tables contain the highest and the lowest prices.

Average Price of Raw Sugar, exclusive of Duty, 34s. 7½d.

AVERAGE PRICE OF CORN  
IN THE TWELVE MARITIME DISTRICTS.  
By the Quarter of 8 Winchester Bushels,  
from the Returns in the Weeks ending

|        | Dec.<br>25. | Jan.<br>1. | Jan.<br>8. | Jan.<br>15. |
|--------|-------------|------------|------------|-------------|
| Wheat  | 64 2        | 63 8       | 63 0       | 63 2        |
| Rye    | 41 9        | 41 3       | 40 0       | 39 11       |
| Barley | 34 10       | 33 7       | 3 7        | 32 7        |
| Oats   | 23 9        | 23 0       | 22 11      | 22 5        |
| Beans  | 45 0        | 45 0       | 43 3       | 41 9        |
| Peas   | 49 6        | 48 6       | 48 1       | 47 3        |

## Bread.

Highest price of the best wheaten bread in London 11d. the quartern loaf.

## Potatoes per Ton in Spitalfields.

|          |         |    |        |
|----------|---------|----|--------|
| Kidneys  | £5 10 0 | to | 6 0 0  |
| Oxnobles | 4 0 0   | to | 4 10 0 |

## Price of Hops in the Borough.

|                   |              |
|-------------------|--------------|
| Kent, New bags    | 60s. to 80s. |
| Sussex, ditto     | 50s. to 70s. |
| Essex, ditto      | 00s. to 00s. |
| Yearling Bags     | 50s. to 74s. |
| Kent, New Pockets | 72s. to 84s. |
| Sussex, ditto     | 60s. to 74s. |
| Essex, ditto      | 60s. to 84s. |
| Farnham, ditto    | 00s. to 00s. |
| Yearling Pockets  | 50s. to 74s. |

## Average Price per Load of

|             | Hay. |    |    | Clover. |    |    | Straw. |    |    |
|-------------|------|----|----|---------|----|----|--------|----|----|
|             | £.   | s. | d. | £.      | s. | d. | £.     | s. | d. |
| Smithfield  | 3    | 12 | 0  | 6       | 0  | 0  | 1      | 10 | 0  |
| Whitechapel | 3    | 14 | 6  | 5       | 8  | 0  | 1      | 11 | 0  |
| St. James's | 4    | 1  | 6  | —       | —  | —  | 1      | 10 | 0  |

Meat by Carcass, per Stone of 8lb. at  
NEWGATE & LEADENHALL MARKETS.

Beef, 3s. 4d. to 4s. 8d.—Mutton, 3s. 4d. to 4s. 4d.—Veal, 4s. 4d. to 7s. 0d.—Pork, 4s. 4d. to 7s. 0d.

At SMITHFIELD, per Stone of 8lb. sinking  
the Offal.

Beef, 4s. 6d. to 5s. 6d.—Mutton, 4s. 6d. to 5s. 6d.—Veal, 6s. to 7s. 6d.—Pork, 6s. to 6s. 4d.

ACCOUNT OF CANALS, DOCKS, BRIDGES, WATER-WORKS, INSURANCE AND GAS-LIGHT  
COMPANIES, INSTITUTIONS, &c.

By Messrs. WOLFE and EDMONDS, No. 9, 'Change-Alley, Cornhill.

(January 21st. 1820.)

| No. of<br>Shares. | Shares<br>of. | Annual<br>Div. |   | Per<br>Share. | No. of<br>Shares.      | Shares<br>of. | Annual<br>Div. |   | Per<br>Share. |    |
|-------------------|---------------|----------------|---|---------------|------------------------|---------------|----------------|---|---------------|----|
| £.                | £.            | s.             |   | £.            | £.                     | £.            | s.             |   | £.            | s. |
| Canals.           |               |                |   |               | Bridges.               |               |                |   |               |    |
| —                 | 100           | —              | Andover.....                                | 10            | 3000                   | 100           | —              | Vauxhall .....                                    | 21            |    |
| 1482              | 100           | —              | Ashby-de-la-Zouch .....                     | 15            | 54,000l.               | —             | 5              | Do. Promissory Notes ....                         | 90            |    |
| 1700              | —             | 3 10           | Ashton and Oldham .....                     | 65            | 5000                   | 100           | —              | Waterloo .....                                    | 5             |    |
| 1250              | 100           | —              | Basingstoke .....                           | —             | 5000                   | 60            | —              | — Annuities of 8l.<br>(60l. paid) .....           | 27 10         |    |
| 10,000l.          | —             | 3              | Do. Bonds .....                             | —             | —                      | —             | —              | — Annuities of 7l.<br>(40l. paid) .....           | 23            |    |
| —                 | 100           | 20             | Birmingham (divided) ....                   | 540           | 5000                   | 40            | —              | Roads.  |               |    |
| 477               | 250           | 5              | Bolton and Bury.....                        | 100           | —                      | —             | —              | Barking.....                                      | 35            |    |
| 908               | 150           | 3              | Brecknock & Abergavenny ..                  | 53            | —                      | —             | —              | Commercial .....                                  | 103           |    |
| 400               | 100           | 5              | Chelmer and Blackwater....                  | 90            | —                      | —             | —              | — East-India                                      |               |    |
| —                 | 100           | 8              | Chesterfield.....                           | 120           | 300                    | 100           | —              | Branch .....                                      | 100           |    |
| 500               | 100           | 44             | Coventry .....                              | 999           | 1000                   | 100           | 5              | Great Dover Street, (70l.<br>paid) .....          | 32            |    |
| 4546              | 100           | —              | Croydon .....                               | 3 15          | —                      | 100           | 5              | Highgate Archway.....                             | 7             |    |
| 640               | 100           | 6              | Derby .....                                 | 112           | —                      | —             | —              | Croydon Railway.....                              | 12            |    |
| 2800              | 100           | 3              | Dudley .....                                | 59            | 492                    | 100           | 2              | Severn and Wye .....                              | 30            |    |
| 4800              | 133           | 4              | Ellesmere and Chester ....                  | 75            | —                      | —             | —              | Water Works.                                      |               |    |
| —                 | 100           | 48             | Erewash .....                               | 1050          | 2393                   | 50            | —              | East London.....                                  | 70            |    |
| 1000              | 100           | —              | Gloucester and Berkeley,<br>old Share ..... | 48            | 1000                   | —             | 1              | Grand Junction .....                              | 42            |    |
| —                 | 60            | 3              | Do. optional loan .....                     | 68            | 3762                   | 50            | 1              | Kent .....  | 31            |    |
| 11,815            | 100           | 9              | Grand Junction .....                        | 215           | —                      | —             | —              | London Bridge.....                                | 57            |    |
| 1521              | 100           | 2              | Grand Surrey .....                          | 55            | 3800                   | 100           | 3 10           | South London .....                                | 21            |    |
| 48,800l.          | —             | 5              | Do. Loan Notes .....                        | 92 10         | 4500                   | 50            | 2 10           | West Middlesex .....                              | 41            |    |
| 2820              | 100           | —              | Grand Union .....                           | 36            | 2000                   | 100           | 2              | York Buildings.....                               | 22 10         |    |
| 20,000l.          | —             | 5              | Do. Loan .....                              | 93            | 1500                   | —             | 2 10           | Fire and Life Insurance.                          |               |    |
| 3006              | 100           | —              | Grand Western, 79l. paid ..                 | 4             | 600                    | 100           | —              | Birmingham .....                                  | 350           |    |
| 720               | 150           | 7              | Grantham .....                              | 126           | 7540                   | —             | 2              | Albion .....                                      | 42            |    |
| 628               | 100           | —              | Huddersfield .....                          | 13            | 1369                   | 100           | —              | Atlas .....                                       | 4 4           |    |
| 35,28             | —             | 1              | Kennet and Avon .....                       | 19 10         | —                      | —             | —              | Bath .....  | 575           |    |
| 11,600            | —             | —              | Lancaster .....                             | 27            | —                      | —             | —              | British .....                                     | 50            |    |
| 2820              | 100           | 10             | Leeds and Liverpool.....                    | 320           | 300                    | 1000          | 25             | County .....                                      | 40            |    |
| 545               | —             | 14             | Leicester .....                             | 290           | 2000                   | 500           | 2 10           | Eagle .....                                       | 2 12 6        |    |
| 180               | —             | 4              | Leicester & Northampton<br>Union .....      | 80            | 25,000                 | 50            | 6              | European .....                                    | 20            |    |
| —                 | 119           | —              | Loughborough.....                           | 2400          | —                      | —             | 40             | Globe .....                                       | 116           |    |
| 250               | —             | 8 10           | Melton Mowbray .....                        | 155           | 4000                   | 250           | 3              | Hope .....  | 4             |    |
| —                 | 30            | —              | Mersey and Irwell .....                     | 620           | 20,000                 | 100           | 2 10           | Imperial .....                                    | 76            |    |
| 2400              | 100           | 10             | Monmouthshire .....                         | 148           | 50,000                 | 50            | 4              | London Fire .....                                 | 23            |    |
| 45,200l.          | 100           | 5              | Do. Debentures .....                        | 92            | 1,00,000l.             | 100           | 6              | London Ship.....                                  | 18 10         |    |
| 247               | —             | 22             | Neath .....                                 | 350           | 40,000                 | 50            | 6              | Rock .....  | 1 17 6        |    |
| 1720              | 100           | 32             | Oxford .....                                | 640           | 2400                   | 500           | 4 10           | Royal Exchange .....                              | 225           |    |
| 2400              | —             | 3              | Peak Forest .....                           | 61            | 3900                   | 25            | 1 4            | Union .....                                       | 32            |    |
| 2520              | 50            | —              | Portsmouth and Arundel,<br>23l. paid.....   | 21            | 31,000                 | 25            | 1              | Gas Lights.                                       |               |    |
| 8043              | —             | —              | Regent's .....                              | 26 10         | 100,000                | 20            | 2              | Gas Light and Coke (Char-<br>tered Company) ..... | 61            |    |
| 3631              | 100           | 2              | Rochdale .....                              | 46            | 745,100l.              | —             | 10             | Do. New Shares, 10l. paid ..                      | 18 10         |    |
| 500               | 125           | 9              | Shrewsbury .....                            | 160           | 1500                   | 200           | 1 4            | City Gas Light Company<br>70l. paid.....          | 96            |    |
| —                 | 100           | 7 10           | Shropshire .....                            | 140           | —                      | —             | —              | Do. New, 30l. paid.....                           | 44            |    |
| 771               | 50            | 3              | Somerset Coal.....                          | 70            | 8000                   | 50            | 4              | Bath Gas, 15l. paid.....                          | 18            |    |
| —                 | 100           | 36             | Staffordshire & Worcester-<br>shire .....   | 625           | 4000                   | 50            | —              | Brighton Gas, 16l. paid....                       | 14            |    |
| 300               | 145           | 15             | Stourbridge .....                           | 205           | 1000                   | 100           | 7              | Bristol .....                                     | 28            |    |
| 5647              | —             | —              | Stratford on Avon .....                     | 17            | —                      | —             | —              | Literary Institutions.                            |               |    |
| 533               | 100           | 10             | Swansea .....                               | 160           | 1000                   | 100           | —              | London .....                                      | 42            |    |
| —                 | —             | 22             | Stroudwater .....                           | 495           | 2500                   | 20            | —              | Russel .....                                      | 11 11         |    |
| 350               | 100           | —              | Tavistock .....                             | 90            | 1500                   | 20            | —              | Surrey.....                                       | 8 10          |    |
| 2670              | —             | —              | Thames and Medway.....                      | 23 10         | 1000                   | 20            | 2              | Miscellaneous.                                    |               |    |
| 1000              | 200           | 70             | Trent & Mersey or Grand<br>Trunk .....      | 1800          | —                      | —             | —              | Auction Mart .....                                | 22            |    |
| —                 | 100           | 11             | Warwick and Birmingham ..                   | 220           | —                      | —             | —              | British Copper Company ..                         | 50            |    |
| 980               | 100           | 11             | Warwick and Napton ....                     | 220           | 1000                   | 75gs          | —              | Golden Lane Brewery, 80l.<br>Shares .....         | 10            |    |
| 6000              | —             | —              | Worcester and Birmingham ..                 | 25            | 700                    | 25gs          | —              | Do. 50l. do.....                                  | 6 10          |    |
| Docks.            |               |                |   |               | Literary Institutions. |               |                |   |               |    |
| 250               | 146           | —              | Bristol .....                               | —             | 700                    | 30gs          | —              | London Commercial Sale<br>Rooms .....             | 18            |    |
| —                 | 5             | —              | Do. Notes .....                             | 98            | 1080                   | 50            | 1 5            | Carnatic Stock, 1st. Class ..                     | 71            |    |
| 3132              | 100           | 3              | Commercial .....                            | 51            | 1397                   | 100           | 2 10           | Do..... 2d. Class.....                            | 61            |    |
| 40,000l.          | —             | 10             | East-India, Stock .....                     | 165           | 2299                   | 80            | —              | City Bonds, 5 per Cent....                        | 96 10         |    |
| 1038              | 100           | —              | East Country .....                          | 20            | —                      | —             | —              |   |               |    |
| 3,114,000l.       | 100           | 3              | London, Stock.....                          | 71            | 3447                   | 50            | —              |   |               |    |
| 1,200,000l.       | 100           | 10             | West-India, Stock .....                     | 174           | 2000                   | 150           | 1              |   |               |    |
| Bridges.          |               |                |   |               |                        |               |                |   |               |    |
| 2912              | 100           | —              | Southwark .....                             | 20            | —                      | —             | 4              |   |               |    |
| 4443              | 40            | —              | Do. new .....                               | 18            | —                      | —             | 3              |   |               |    |
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**Daily Price of Stocks, from 24th of December to 24th January.**

|      | Bank St. | 3 p. Cent. Reduced. | 3 p. Cent. Consols. | 3½ p. Cent. | 4 p. Cent. | 5 p. Cent. Navy. | Long Annuities. | Imperial 3 p. Cent. | Omnium. | India St. | India Bonds. | South Sea Stock. | Excheq. Bills. | Ditto Commer. | Consols for Acc. |
|------|----------|---------------------|---------------------|-------------|------------|------------------|-----------------|---------------------|---------|-----------|--------------|------------------|----------------|---------------|------------------|
| 1819 |          |                     |                     |             |            |                  |                 |                     |         |           |              |                  |                |               |                  |
| Dec. |          |                     |                     |             |            |                  |                 |                     |         |           |              |                  |                |               |                  |
| 25   |          |                     |                     |             |            |                  |                 |                     |         |           |              |                  |                |               |                  |
| 27   | St.      |                     |                     |             |            |                  |                 |                     |         |           |              |                  |                |               |                  |
| 28   |          |                     |                     |             |            |                  |                 |                     |         |           |              |                  |                |               |                  |
| 29   | 217      | 66½                 | 7½                  | Shut.       | 75½        | 84               | 104             | 17½                 | 65½     | —         | 1 dis.       | —                | 4 dis.         | 26 ds         | 66½              |
| 30   | —        | 67½                 | —                   | —           | 75½        | 84½              | 104½            | 17½                 | —       | —         | par.         | —                | 4 dis.         | 26 ds         | 66½              |
| 31   | 217½     | 67½                 | —                   | —           | 75½        | 84½              | —               | 17½                 | 65½     | —         | 1p           | —                | 3 dis.         | —             | 66½              |
| Jan. |          |                     |                     |             |            |                  |                 |                     |         |           |              |                  |                |               |                  |
| 1    |          |                     |                     |             |            |                  |                 |                     |         |           |              |                  |                |               |                  |
| 3    | —        | 67½                 | —                   | —           | 75½        | 84½              | 104½            | 17½                 | 66½     | —         | 2p           | —                | 3 dis.         | 23 ds         | 69               |
| 4    | 220      | 67½                 | —                   | —           | 76½        | 85               | 104½            | —                   | 66½     | —         | 4p           | —                | 2 dis.         | —             | 69½              |
| 5    | 220½     | 68                  | 7                   | —           | 76½        | 84½              | —               | 17½                 | —       | —         | 10p          | —                | par.           | —             | 69½              |
| 6    | —        | 67½                 | —                   | —           | 76½        | —                | —               | 17½                 | 66½     | —         | 9p           | —                | par.           | 16 ds         | 69½              |
| 7    | 220½     | 68                  | 67½                 | 8           | 76½        | 85½              | 102½            | 17½                 | 67      | 205½      | 9p           | 74½              | par.           | —             | 69½              |
| 8    | —        | 68                  | 68                  | 7½          | 76½        | 86½              | 103             | 17½                 | —       | —         | 10p          | —                | par.           | 13 ds         | 69½              |
| 10   | 220      | 68½                 | 67½                 | 8           | 76½        | 86½              | 102½            | 17½                 | —       | —         | 10p          | —                | par.           | —             | 69½              |
| 11   | 220½     | 68½                 | 67½                 | 8           | 77½        | 86½              | 102½            | 17½                 | —       | 205½      | 10p          | —                | par.           | 15 ds         | 69½              |
| 12   | 220      | 68½                 | 68                  | 7½          | 77½        | 86½              | 102½            | 18                  | 67½     | —         | 10p          | —                | 1 dis.         | 11 ds         | 69½              |
| 13   | 220      | 68½                 | 67½                 | 8           | 77½        | 86½              | 102½            | 18                  | —       | 205½      | 9p           | 74½              | 1 dis.         | 12 ds         | 69½              |
| 14   | —        | 68½                 | 68                  | 7½          | 77½        | 86½              | 103             | 18                  | 67½     | —         | 9p           | 74½              | 1 dis.         | —             | 69½              |
| 15   | —        | 68½                 | 67½                 | 8           | —          | 87               | 103             | 18                  | —       | —         | 9p           | —                | 1 dis.         | —             | 69½              |
| 17   | —        | 68                  | 68½                 | 7½          | 77½        | 87½              | 103½            | 18½                 | —       | —         | 9p           | —                | par.           | —             | 69½              |
| 18   | 221½     | 68½                 | 68½                 | 7½          | 77½        | 87½              | 103             | 18                  | —       | —         | 10p          | —                | par.           | —             | 69½              |
| 19   | 221½     | 68½                 | 68                  | 7½          | 77         | 86½              | 102½            | 18                  | 67½     | —         | 10p          | 75½              | 2p             | —             | 68               |
| 20   | 221      | 68½                 | 67½                 | 8½          | 77½        | 86½              | 102             | 18                  | —       | 207       | 11p          | —                | 2p             | —             | 68½              |
| 21   | —        | 68                  | 68½                 | 8           | 77½        | 87               | 103             | 18½                 | 67½     | —         | —            | —                | 3 dis.         | 9 ds          | 68½              |
| 22   | 222      | 69½                 | 68½                 | 8           | 77½        | 87½              | 103             | 18½                 | —       | —         | 12p          | —                | 3p             | —             | 68½              |
| 24   | —        | 68½                 | 68½                 | 8           | 77         | 87               | 102             | 18½                 | —       | —         | 13p          | —                | 4p             | 8 ds          | 68½              |

**IRISH FUNDS.**

|      | Bank Stock | Government De-benture 3½ per ct. | Government Stock, 3½ per ct. | Government De-benture 4 per ct. | Government De-benture 5 per ct. | Government Stock, 5 per ct. | Grand Canal Stock. | Grand Canal Loan, 4 per ct. | Grand Canal Loan, 6 per ct. | Royal Canal Stock. | City Dublin Bonds. |
|------|------------|----------------------------------|------------------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|
| Dec. |            |                                  |                              |                                 |                                 |                             |                    |                             |                             |                    |                    |
| 21   | —          | 79½                              | 75½                          | —                               | 103½                            | 103½                        | —                  | —                           | 68½                         | —                  | —                  |
| 27   | —          | 79½                              | 76                           | —                               | 104                             | 103½                        | —                  | —                           | —                           | —                  | —                  |
| 31   | —          | 79½                              | 75½                          | —                               | 103½                            | 103½                        | —                  | —                           | —                           | —                  | —                  |
| Jan. |            |                                  |                              |                                 |                                 |                             |                    |                             |                             |                    |                    |
| 3    | 215        | 79½                              | 76                           | —                               | 103½                            | 103½                        | —                  | —                           | 69½                         | —                  | —                  |
| 7    | 216        | 80½                              | 76½                          | —                               | 103½                            | 103½                        | —                  | —                           | 69½                         | 36                 | —                  |
| 10   | 216        | 80½                              | 76½                          | —                               | 104                             | 103                         | —                  | —                           | —                           | 36½                | —                  |
| 13   | —          | 80½                              | 76                           | —                               | 104                             | 104                         | —                  | 44½                         | 69½                         | —                  | —                  |
| 17   | —          | 80½                              | 76                           | —                               | 104                             | 104                         | —                  | 44½                         | 69½                         | —                  | —                  |

**Prices of the FRENCH FUNDS.**  
From December 24 to Jan. 21.

|      | 5 per Cent. consols | Bank Actions. |
|------|---------------------|---------------|
| 1820 |                     |               |
| Dec. | fr. c.              | fr. c.        |
| 24   | 70 80               | 1450 —        |
| 28   | 71 90               | 1405 —        |
| Jan. |                     |               |
| 1    | 70 90               | 1380 —        |
| 3    | 71 50               | 1385 —        |
| 7    | 72 65               | 1437 —        |
| 11   | 72 40               | 1425 —        |
| 15   | 72 40               | 1422 —        |

**AMERICAN FUNDS.**

|                | IN LONDON. |      |         | NEW YORK. |      |        |
|----------------|------------|------|---------|-----------|------|--------|
|                | Dec. 24    | 31   | Jan. 21 | Nov. 15   | 24   | Dec. 9 |
| 7 per cent.... | 105        | 105  | —       | 106       | 107  | 107    |
| Bank Shares..  | £21        | £21  | —       | 96½       | 95   | 94     |
| Louisiana...   | —          | —    | —       | par.      | par. | par.   |
| Old 6 per cent | —          | —    | —       | par.      | par. | par.   |
| New 6 per cent | 100½       | 100½ | par.    | 103½      | 103½ | 103½   |
| 3 per cent.... | 62½        | 62½  | 62½     | 65        | 65   | 65     |

By J. M. Richardson, Stock-broker, 23, Cornhill.